The Nation.

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The Week.

The opportunists of the McKinley Administration will receive a severe shock from the picture of the situation in the Philippines which Dr. McQueston, of Gen. Otis's staff, brings nome with him. He says it will require a force of 100,000 to 150,000 soldiers to subdue and hold the islands; that unless thousands of troops be sent at once to the aid of those now there, our forces will be driven back into Manila during the next few months; that our men simply cannot stand the climate during the rainy season; that fifty per cent. of them will be incapacitated by sickness; that the territory hitherto overrun will have to be abandoned, and that Manila will be in a state of siege again. As to the temper and feeling of our soldiers, he says: "The volunteers all want to return home, and I hardly think that the plan to enlist three skeleton regiments from the volunteers now in the Philippines will be a success. The men enlisted to fight for their country, and they are not the kind of men who want to stay and fight an insurrection for money or for the fun of fighting." These are not the words of a despised private soldier, or of a non-patriotic anti-imperialist, but of a member of the staff of the Commanding General, who has served as the Health Officer at Manila. It is barely possible that they may even cause Alger and Corbin to think that the situation in the Philippines is serious.

There is talk in Washington of a new department of the Government and a new member of the cabinet, to be called the Secretary of the Colonies. It is said that Cuba, Porto Rico, and the Philippines cannot always remain under charge of army officers, that the War Department is overburdened already, that the mere financial administration of the islands is sufficient to engross the whole time of a cabinet officer, and, finally, that if a Department of the Colonies is created, it is probable that R. P. Porter will be made the first Secretary of it. All this reads very much like a plan to introduce the spoils system into the islands at the earliest possible moment. Certainly nobody could be found better fitted for carrying out that scheme than the ex-Director of the Census. The discussion of a Department of the Colonies must be considered premature, however, until Congress decides whether we are to have colonies, or only Territories. A colony is a subject country to be ruled by the mother or mistress country by her appointees, her governors, proconsuls, harmosts, satraps, or whatever they may be called. A Territory is for the most part a self-governing district, which may look forward to a time, near or remote, when it will become an equal partner, and help to govern the mother country, in proportion to its numbers. Congress must decide which of these two forms of government is to be first applied to the "colonies." If they are to be reckoned as Territories, we shall need no new cabinet officer to look after them, or to see that the spoils of office are properly apportioned to our most reliable "heelers," as the census patronage is and has been. Meanwhile, the duty of counting and taking care of the revenue of the islands will remain in charge of army officers, and will, no doubt, be well and honestly discharged, even though Alger continues in charge of the War Department.

From the entire indifference with which the public has treated Commissioner R. P. Porter's contention that exposure of commissary scandals is spoiling our foreign trade, we should infer either that the public does not believe in condoning a flagrant wrong for a pecuniary advantage, or else that it does not trust Mr. Porter's statements about the exports. In either case, we suspect that the public's judgment would be warranted. Mr. Porter's allegation was that "the various meat investigations, and the political capital which has been made out of them by American newspapers, have done our interests more injury" in European eyes than all foreign influences put together. This was an assertion as to what has actually happened. But Mr. Porter grew somewhat more cautious as he approached nearer to official statistics, finally contenting himself with predicting a possible loss to the meat-export trade of "$20,000,000 to $25,000,000 per annum." This caution was well advised, for the detailed returns of the Federal Bureau of Statistics for May inform the American public that our export of canned beef last month increased 647,000 pounds over 1898, and our export of fresh beef 6,033,000 pounds, and that the total preserved beef exports in May were the largest for any corresponding period in our history. It is possible that even the foreign consumer may have grasped the fact that the "Eagan brand" of contract army beef was something contrived exclusively for the army, and not available in the export market.

Senator Foraker is much of the time in a frame of mind towards the McKinley Administration which enables him to say what he thinks without any hesitation or reserve. He is particularly ready to do this just now, because the old factional troubles among the Republicans of Ohio, in which he has so long been involved, are raging afresh, and the dominant Hanna wing is doing its best to "down" him. It is not surprising, therefore, that Mr. Foraker should have told an interviewer on Thursday that "we seem to have a harder job on our hands in the Philippines than we anticipated"; and that, although Congress will provide the means if more men and money are wanted, "the war is not popular." The truly loyal organs of the Administration will, as in duty bound, sneer at the Ohio Senator for talking in this strain; but we doubt if even the most ardent advocate of the expansion policy will venture to controvert his position by trying to prove that the war really is popular.

One remark of Senator Foraker's expresses a feeling which is steadily growing among close observers. "I don't believe," he says, "the newspapers are getting all the news received at the War Department, but I know nothing of it personally." There is no doubt that our imitation of the Spanish system of suppressing facts, through a censorship of the press, is constantly being carried further. Nearly two months ago the Hong Kong *Daily Press* contained a statement from the *American*, published at Manila, saying that its readers had complained because it did not give more news, and explaining that "many cablegrams are received from the United States, but are suppressed by the press censor," these two illustrations being cited: "On Friday a portion of one of our cablegrams was suppressed, and yesterday one entire dispatch was censored, this office receiving nothing but the words: 'American, Manila, from Hong Kong; text suppressed by press censor.'" A fortnight ago the Philadelphia *Times* published a special dispatch from Hong Kong, saying that the censorship at Manila had become so strict that a meeting of the correspondents there had been called to protest against the action of the United States military authorities. The representative of the *Times* reported that "nothing is allowed to be sent out on matters which affect the Administration at Washington; and unless dispatches are rosy and optimistic, they are not allowed to go." He further declared that, although there was great anxiety on the part of the volunteers to return home, the censor suppresses every mention of the fact, and that he also forbids any reference to the terrible sufferings from the heat, while "our men drop like sheep from the overpowering influence of the sun's rays." It is an interesting question how long the Ame-

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rican people will endure the same policy of suppression and deceit which they used to pity the Spaniards for tolerating a year and a half ago.

A more impudent performance than the appearance of Gen. Russell A. Alger as a candidate for the United States Senate from Michigan on a platform of opposition to Trusts could not be imagined. He was himself one of the chief organizers of a most odious Trust, and the Supreme Court of his own State held that the enterprise in which he thus engaged was unlawful and against public policy. About seventeen years ago the Diamond Match Company was organized by Gen. Alger and some other business men, with a view to controlling the manufacture and sale of friction-matches in the United States and Canada. The object sought to be attained was boldly avowed. The articles of agreement provided for the aggregation of an enormous amount of capital, sufficient to buy up and absorb all of that kind of business done in this country and in the Dominion, and to prevent any other person or corporation from engaging in or carrying on the business, thereby preventing all competition in the sale of matches. Not only did this object plainly appear in the organization of the Trust, but it was openly admitted by Gen. Alger himself. A law-suit grew out of the proceedings taken, to which he was a party, and here is his confession, in response to a question from his counsel:

"Question. It appears that during the years 1881 and 1882 large sums of money were expended to keep men out of the match business, remove competition, buy machinery and patents, and in some instances purchase other match factories. I will ask you to state the reasons, if there are any, why these sums should not be treated as an expense of the business and charged off from this account?

"Answer. Because the prices of matches were kept up to correspond, *so as to pay these expenses and make large dividends above what could have been made had those factories been in the market to compete with the business.*"

The case finally reached the Supreme Court of Michigan, and its decision was filed on the 15th of November, 1889. The judgment of the court went to the heart of the matter. Chief Justice Sherwood, who wrote the decision, began by saying that no one could read the contract in question and fail to discover that considerations of public policy were largely involved. He then set forth the facts regarding the organization and operation of the Diamond Match Company, declaring that "the sole object of the corporation is to make money by having it in its power to raise the price of the article, or diminish the quantity to be made and used, at its pleasure." Both the supply of the article and its price were made to depend upon the action of about a half-dozen individuals, "to satisfy their cupidity and avarice." The article thus brought under the control of a few avaricious men is one in necessary and daily use by almost every individual in the country. "It is difficult," said the Chief Justice, "to conceive of a monopoly which can affect a greater number of people, or one more extensive in its effect on the country, than that of the Diamond Match Company." The contract in the case then pending was to aid that company in carrying out its purposes, and the court was asked to enforce the contract. This it flatly refused to do, for the reasons quoted above.

Director Merriam of the Census Bureau has been trying to delude the public by the pretence that all applicants for places must undergo an examination which will test their ability as fully as any inquiry into their qualifications which the Civil-Service Commission would have made, if these positions had been brought under the rules. But only a very simple person could be taken in by such a pretence. If the spoilsmen had desired the honest application of the competitive system, they would have turned over this work to the Commission; whereas long experience of the "pass" examination has shown that it is always a delusion and a snare. This old truth is now being freshly demonstrated again. A sample illustration of the way that a spoilsman's examination works is given by the Baltimore *News*. An applicant whose home is not a thousand miles from Baltimore, after having passed what he was told by the officials was a highly creditable examination for one of the higher positions in the bureau, was advised by them to go and see his Congressman, who in turn referred him to the "executive" (the Baltimore equivalent of the New York "district leader") of the applicant's ward!

One of the worst effects of the President's recent "backward step" in the matter of civil-service reform is the encouragement which it has given to the revival of the spoils spirit everywhere. During the first two years of his administration Mr. McKinley reappointed efficient Democratic postmasters, upon the expiration of their terms, in more than one Massachusetts town, and the feeling was growing throughout the State that, when the incumbent of such an office had served to the general satisfaction of the community, politics should not stand in the way of his retention. Easthampton, a business and educational centre in one of the western counties, should have been added to the list of places where this sound principle had been accepted. Four years ago Mr. Cleveland appointed a postmaster who has proved so efficient that his reappointment was asked for in a very strong petition, representing a large majority of the voters, and nearly all the business interests, including all the manufactories, Williston Seminary, the banks, and almost all of the merchants. But, since the bars have been taken down in the classified service by the President's recent order, the Republican politicians apparently feel that it will not do to let a Democrat stay in any place from which he can be ousted, and word has reached Easthampton that a Republican must be picked out for an office which nine-tenths of those most concerned prefer to see the Democratic incumbent retain.

A striking illustration of the folly of the rule that there must be a change in the postmastership of every town whenever there is a change of parties in the national administration at Washington, was afforded by a recent incident in the United States District Court for Connecticut. At East Hartland a man named Hayes had been arrested for the embezzlement of about $345 while he was postmaster of that town, and was indicted by the grand jury. A lawyer appeared in his defence, but all that he could do was to plead for a mitigation of punishment, on this ground: "It was a great mistake that the man was ever appointed, but as Hayes was about the only one who had voted the Democratic ticket in Hartland for some time, he supposed that some one had to be appointed postmaster there, when the change of administration came, but he considered it a misfortune for Hayes that he had ever been selected." The District Attorney conceded that Hayes was a very ignorant man, and Judge Townsend said that he felt sorry for him, as he sentenced him to six months' imprisonment.

The Bourbon Democracy of Kentucky have adopted a pro-silver and anti-imperialist platform, and have nominated William J. Bryan for President. Neither the head nor the tail of the platform is very energetic in tone. The plea for silver is almost apologetic. The war with Spain is commended and endorsed, but the Administration's course in the Philippines is declared to be contrary to the spirit of republican institutions. The convention finally nominated J. C. S. Blackburn for Senator of the United States in place of Mr. Lindsay, the present member. Mr. Lindsay was a supporter of Palmer and Buckner in the campaign of 1896. Kentucky, under normal conditions, is overwhelmingly Democratic, and will no doubt prove to be such at the coming election. Her influence upon the Democracy of other States has never been great, and is not likely to be important this year.

The Silver Republican party of Iowa has given up the ghost. The attack

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which destroyed what little life remained, was dealt by a provision in the new ballot law which will prevent so weak an organization from placing a ticket on the ballot next fall; but it would have been almost impossible to keep any breath in its body if there had been no such difficulty. The Silver Republicans counted for so little in the campaign of 1896 that the other elements in the opposition to the dominant party have not thought it worth while to pay much attention to them since then. The Populists in some States will find it almost as hard to keep up their separate organization, since the Bryanized Democracy has so generally accepted their principles. Bryanism has become so close an approach to Populism that there is not much excuse for keeping up the fiction of a difference. Indeed, the chief reason in most cases why anybody tries to maintain the separate organization is the hope of the men who run it that they may fare better, in the way of nominations, when the two parties "fuse" on a ticket than if they fell in behind the regular Democrats.

Prof. McVey of the University of Minnesota, in a note contributed to the *Journal of Political Economy* on the subject of Trusts and the tariff, says that there are some combinations so dependent on the tariff that the repeal of the protective duties would destroy both the combination and the industry. He instances the Tin-Plate combine as one of this sort, and gives figures to show how the tariff works in this case. The Tin-Plate Trust was formed last December with a capital of $50,000,000. The selling price of tin-plate in Liverpool is $2.30 per box. The cost of production in this country is $2.75, and the tariff is $1.62 per box, or 70 per cent. ad valorem. Since the formation of the Trust the price has been raised to $3.80 per box, which is about the Liverpool price with the duty added. In other words, the Trust prevents the consumer from getting the benefit of domestic competition in the manufacture of tin-plate, and the tariff enables the Trust to accomplish this object. There has been considerable chuckling among the high-tariff gentry over the success of the tin-plate industry in this country, but in the presence of these facts and figures the less we hear from them the better. There never was any doubt that by paying 70 per cent. more for tin-plate than it is worth in a free market we could have it produced at home. Nor was there much doubt that the makers would combine to prevent domestic competition just as soon as the consumers began to derive any benefit from it.

The reported placing of orders for 180,000 tons of steel rails for Russia at the Carnegie works, to be delivered during the next twenty-six months, is fresh evidence of the fact that the United States has become the centre of the world's iron and steel production. It may be worth mentioning that nine years ago Mr. Edward Atkinson contributed to the *Manufacturers' Record* of Baltimore a paper predicting this result as something to be looked for at an early date, *i. e.*, that the United States would soon distance all other countries in the production of iron. He also quoted an earlier prediction of the same tenor from Abram S. Hewitt, dated as far back as 1855. Both were true prophets, and their words have come true sooner, perhaps, than they expected. Great Britain, hitherto the largest producer of iron and steel among the nations, is now handicapped by the growing cost of her raw material. She is compelled to import the best qualities of iron ore from Spain and Sweden, and, what is still more serious, she has reached her maximum output of coal; that is, she has reached the point where a larger demand for coal cannot be supplied without a material advance in price. This is a critical situation for her iron industry, if not for all of her industries that depend upon coal. At present the world's demand for iron and steel has outrun the supply, and while this condition lasts the competition of the United States will be little felt. But when the situation changes, the advantages which we possess in raw material will begin to tell against the English furnaces, and can be met only by economies of detail or by the sad alternative of lower wages to laborers.

The outward movement of gold ought not to attract any attention, and does not, except among those who deal in foreign exchange and those who have bills to pay abroad. It is easily explained by a number of patent facts, which are commonly overlooked. One of these is the gold production of the United States, which is going on all the time at the rate of $5,000,000 per month. In addition to this is the production of the Klondike mines, nearly all of which comes to our refineries and assay offices. The amount of Klondike gold coming in is not known, but it is a pretty large sum, and is evidently increasing. It is not to be supposed that we can find use for all that we produce, plus all that we take in from the North. It is neither possible nor desirable that we should retain an excess of gold, any more than of grain, or cotton, or pig-iron. Moreover, the outward movement has not yet reached the amount of the payment made to Spain for the Philippines. Still another line of drainage not usually observed is the war in the Philippines, which is costing about $3,000,000 per month. This works against our balance of trade just like the payment of the $20,000,000 to Spain. Several months of the war will cost us more than the original price of the islands. The $3,000,000 sent to pay the Cuban army must be taken into the reckoning, also, together with the support of our own military forces there and in Porto Rico. Altogether the wonder is that the gold-export movement did not begin sooner and reach a larger amount.

The establishment of Australian federation is a matter of world-wide concern, and the result of the vote on this question in New South Wales on June 20 is therefore of the first importance. The idea of such a union among the British colonies in that part of the world has been discussed for a dozen years, but New South Wales, the coöperation of which was most essential, seemed disposed for some time to hang back. The late election, however, resulted in an overwhelming majority in favor of federation. South Australia has previously voted the same way; Victoria will certainly follow suit at its election next month, and Tasmania whenever the vote shall be taken; while Queensland, which has been hostile to the scheme, is not likely to stay out alone very long. Even if the latter colony shall vote against it next September, the other four will go ahead and start the Federation, under a Constitution which bears some strong resemblances to that of the United States. Such a Federation is a sign of healthy progress in the unification of interests among colonies which have much to gain from closer ties.

The arrival of the bubonic plague in Egypt in the course of its westwardly advance from China towards Europe is a disquieting fact, inasmuch as the latest scientific testimony is to the effect that the disease, having once obtained a foothold, cannot be stamped out by summary measures, but will prevail so long as it has material to feed upon. Alexandria is much cleaner now than it was before the days of the English occupation, but it is still an Oriental city, and, with the plague within its borders, more or less of a menace to all ports with which it is in communication. That the pest can be prevented from spreading to Europe is most improbable, that it may cross the Atlantic or Pacific is quite within the limits of possibility; but fortunately it is now practically certain that it can be controlled and defeated by proper sanitary precautions. This seems to be about the only point in connection with it upon which all the scientists are agreed, after several years of anxious observation in China and in India. As to the cure of the malady, Science has not advanced yet much beyond the experimental stage. The Russian Dr. Haffkin claims a certain degree of success for preliminary inoculation by his process.

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AID AND COMFORT TO THE ENEMY.

The speech made by Mr. Barrett, late Minister from the United States to Siam, at the Chamber of Commerce in Boston, was in some respects commendable. So far as it dealt with the commerce of the East, it was at least more moderate in its estimates than some others that have been made. Mr. Barrett, however, assigned no substantial reason for the great increase of trade which he expected, and his estimates must be regarded as largely conjectural. It is not his figures that appear to us deserving of attention, but the political principles that he enunciates. He thinks that the only hope of this country, so far as gaining the trade of the Far East is concerned, is in our maintaining our sovereignty perpetually over the Philippine Islands, and he implies that those who protest against our subjugating their inhabitants are traitors. He declared that all our generals and most of our privates agree that the anti-imperialist movement has given unlimited aid, comfort, and encouragement to the forces of the Filipinos. More specifically, he stated that "the most encouraging influence for the Filipinos in fighting us, and hence the most unfortunate one for our soldiers and sailors to combat against, was the spreading of the sentiment and ideas through the ranks of the Filipino army and among the masses of the natives that our occupation of the islands was unwarranted, the war unprovoked, our army and navy unsupported by our people, and our country about to demand the withdrawal of our forces from the islands, the hauling down of the flag, and our complete and ignominious withdrawal from our responsibilities."

Mr. Barrett further declared that Senator Hoar's speech roused great hopes of freedom among the Filipinos, and that he did all that he could to prevent copies of the speech from being distributed among them. This is in accordance with the principles of the censorship which has been established under our military rule, and Mr. Barrett's whole speech is based on the assumption that it is the duty of Americans who believe that we are engaged in a war of "criminal aggression" to deny their belief, or at least hold their tongues. This assumption has no place in the theory of free government. It belongs to despotism, and the naïveté with which Mr. Barrett adopts it shows how extensive is the demoralization produced by war.

But how consistent is his own practice with his censure of those who will not be silent at this time? We find in the July number of the *Review of Reviews* an article from his pen on the Philippine situation, in which he represents Aguinaldo as the idolized popular leader, who had returned to his country "under the protection of the ships of a nation called America, which had gone to war with Spain and would give them freedom and independence at once." The "impression went abroad among the masses of the people that Aguinaldo had arrived to establish an independent government, and that the Americans would assist him." The people flocked to him in such numbers that he had contributions of large sums of money, unlimited supplies of food, and more soldiers than he could arm. The "people were educated to believe that they were to have absolute independence." Within a few months, Aguinaldo organized a government which "developed into a much more elaborate affair than its most ardent supporters had originally expected." By the middle of October, 1898, says Mr. Barrett,

> "He had assembled at Malolos a congress of 100 men who would compare in behavior, manner, dress, and education with the average men of the better classes of other Asiatic nations, possibly including the Japanese. These men, whose sessions I repeatedly attended, conducted themselves with great decorum, and showed a knowledge of debate and parliamentary law that would not compare unfavorably with the Japanese Parliament. The executive portion of the Government was made up of a ministry of bright men who seemed to understand their respective positions. Each general division was subdivided with reference to practical work. There was a large force of under-secretaries and clerks, who appeared to be kept very busy with routine labor."

Does that sound like the description of an assemblage of savages, or of an assemblage of intelligent men, who knew what they wanted—knew their rights, and were bound to maintain them? And now read what Mr. Barrett says of the army which Aguinaldo collected:

> "The army, however, of Aguinaldo was the marvel of his achievements. He had over twenty regiments of comparatively well-organized, well-drilled, and well-dressed soldiers, carrying modern rifles and ammunition. I saw many of these regiments executing not only regimental, but battalion and company drill, with a precision that astonished me. Certainly as far as dress was concerned, the comparison with the uniform of our soldiers was favorable to the Filipinos. They were officered largely, except in the higher positions, with young men who were ambitious to win honors and were not merely show fighters. The people in all the different towns took great pride in this army. Nearly every family had a father, son, or cousin in it. Wherever they went, they roused enthusiasm for the Filipino cause. The impression made upon the inhabitants of the interior by such displays can be readily appreciated. Aguinaldo and his principal lieutenants also made frequent visits to the principal towns, and were received with the same earnestness that we show in greeting a successful President."

We submit that when Mr. Barrett publishes facts like these, he does more to discredit the war which we are carrying forward in the Philippines than all the utterances of the anti-imperialists, and all the soldiers' letters combined, can do. He makes an effort to show that Aguinaldo is culpable because, when he found that the Americans were not going to withdraw and leave the Filipinos to rule their own country, he concealed the fact from his followers. He also endeavors to show that while our forces maintained "most agreeable relations" with Aguinaldo when he first returned, Admiral Dewey was "careful to avoid formal recognition." But Mr. Barrett knows very well that there is other evidence on this point which establishes beyond dispute that Aguinaldo and his followers were led to believe that they would be helped by the Americans to establish their own independence. There is the official dispatch of Admiral Dewey himself, sent to the Secretary of the Navy on June 27, 1898:

> "Aguinaldo, insurgent leader, with thirteen of his staff, arrived May 19, by permission, on the *Nashan*. . . . I have given him to understand that I consider insurgents as friends, being opposed to a common enemy. He has gone to attend a meeting of insurgent leaders for the purpose of forming civil government. . . . In my opinion, these people are far superior in their intelligence and more capable of self-government than the natives of Cuba, and I am familiar with both races."

A few weeks later, Gen. Thomas M. Anderson, commanding the United States troops at Cavité, wrote to Aguinaldo: "I would like to have your Excellency's advice and coöperation, as you are best acquainted with the resources of the country." Three weeks later, still in supreme command, he asked Aguinaldo for assistance in transportation of American troops, "as it is to fight in the cause of your people." That previous to this time our consular officials, Wildman, Consul-General at Hong Kong, Pratt, Consul-General at Singapore, and Williams, Consul at Manila, gave Aguinaldo the strongest reasons for believing that the American Government would help him to secure the independence of the Filipinos, is an established fact, the details of which are too familiar to need repetition. But what matters it how he and his fellow-patriots got the idea that we were to help them to fight for their independence? If they are fighting for it, what kind of an American is he who cannot sympathize with them? And if our sympathy depends upon their condition of savagery or the reverse, is not Mr. Barrett fostering the very "treason" he deprecates?

HONEST POLITICS.

It would be interesting to learn exactly who is meant to be influenced by the defences of the recent civil-service order which have been put forth. We know what the Civil-Service Commission thinks of it; we know what every one who has struggled for the reform thinks of it. They have no doubt concerning the purpose of the order, nor concerning its construction, nor concerning its operation. The assertion that the order is really calculated to promote the cause of reform, in the opinion of all these persons, merely adds the sin of hypocrisy to the guilt of bad faith. It is certainly improbable, on its face, that an order devised by men who have never interested themselves in reforming the service should be meant to advance the reform,

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when no one who has been interested in the reform suggested or desired such an order. We may lay it down quite positively that whoever was grieved or disgusted or angered by the issuing of the order has not had his feeling altered by the defences offered for it.

There is abundant evidence, also, that these defences are equally worthless in the view of those who are opposed to reform. The Ohio politicians may have exulted a little prematurely, and perhaps injudiciously; but they exulted sincerely and they show no signs of disappointment. They are doubtless indifferent to explanations of the new order, provided they get the offices, and they have no doubt that they will get them. The editor of a New Hampshire journal, the *Mirror and Farmer*, of Manchester, perhaps as influential a Republican organ as any in Northern New England, dismisses all the talk of the President's being in favor of keeping the offices out of the hands of the politicians as cant. He says very frankly that it is wasting space to contend that the President's order "taking from 5,000 to 10,000 Federal offices out of the classified service and putting them in the list of spoils squares with the St. Louis platform, or with the President's letter of acceptance, because every intelligent person who is interested in the subject knows to the contrary." The order, he maintains, is right, because it restores to the politicians a large number of offices that should never have been taken away from them, and he concludes with the pointed question: "Why not stand up and say so, instead of asking people to believe what they all know it is not?"

This honest politician takes the ground that as the Democratic officeholders are performing their duties faithfully and satisfactorily, it would be an outrage to remove them "for cause." There is no cause for removing them, except that they opposed McKinley's election in 1896 and will oppose his reëlection in 1900. Barring their politics, they are well enough; but there are plenty of Republicans who can step into their places and perform their duties just as efficiently. No doubt President McKinley declared that he stood on the St. Louis platform, and that platform promised to defend and extend the merit system. But, in the first place, "the adoption of the civil-service plank at St. Louis was a perfunctory performance, intended, like the declaration in favor of international bimetallism, to catch or hold a few votes of which it was supposed there would be great need." The promise was a bad one, and is better broken than kept. The President "has become convinced that the Republicans did not mean what they said when, at St. Louis, they poll-parroted the usual promise to defend and extend the civil-service rules, in accordance with the wishes of the professional reformers, and he has corrected the mistake. He has made it possible to bounce several thousand Democrats who are doing well enough, and give their places to as many Republicans who will do just as well. This is the plain truth, and nothing is to be gained by having it misstated by cabinet officers or any one else."

It is difficult not to be convinced by these statements. They are evidently sincere, they express the feeling of most of the Republican politicians, and they are intrinsically probable. No one can deny that there are thousands of offices in which the pay is more than the services are worth—in which, indeed, the services are of no market value, and as has often been pointed out, in which a child could do all that is required of a man. Such offices are created by politicians for the purpose of filling them with politicians, and to suppose that they will relinquish them without the most desperate resistance is to suppose that they are willing to commit political suicide. Such offices are created to be made "spoils," and it is time for reformers to enlarge their scheme, so as to provide for the abolition of useless offices and the compensation of employees on business principles, as well as for examinations and permanent tenure. Until this is done, the ordinary citizen will cling to the traditional view that a public office is one in which the pay is much higher, in proportion to the work done, than a private position; and while that view prevails, the "spoils" theory will endure. The New Hampshire editor has stated the case fairly and honestly. The Republican politicians talked of civil-service reform only to gain votes, and now that they think they do not need these votes, they cease their pretences. That may be called dishonest politics from one point of view, but it is honest politics as showing reformers just how they have been treated, and just what they may expect from the Republican party.

POLITICAL ISSUES CHANGING.

Mr. S. E. Morss, editor of the Indianapolis *Sentinel*, is credited with holding the view that the financial plank in the Democratic platform of 1896 ought not to form the dominant issue in the campaign of next year, and that if it does the party will be beaten. According to an interview which has been published in some of the Western newspapers, Mr. Morss thinks that the issues will be "anti-Trust, anti-militarism, expansion, and tariff reform." With these he thinks that the Democrats would have good prospects of success. It is reported that the ancient and moss-grown Democracy of Indiana are much agitated by this outgiving, and that some of the more venerable members of the party talk of starting a new paper in opposition to the *Sentinel*—a project which may be carried into effect when the United States adopts free coinage at the ratio of 16 to 1 without the consent of any other nation, but not before.

Undoubtedly Mr. Morss, in the interview attributed to him, represents the present drift and tendency of the Democratic party. On the other hand, we observe a tendency among the Republicans to put the financial issue forward as the chief one of the next campaign. Such must be the meaning of the sudden and praiseworthy zeal of their leading organs in favor of a law declaring all Government obligations payable in gold, and the reported determination of the Senate Finance Committee to promote the passage of such a measure next winter. If such a bill is reported at the next session, it will constitute a challenge to the Democrats to make the campaign on the issues of 1896. It will serve the twofold purpose of putting the Democrats in a dilemma, and of sidetracking the issues of imperialism and civil-service debauchery which now becloud the Republican horizon not a little.

The question, what shall be the issues of next year, cannot be determined *ex cathedra* this year. Whatever shall prove to be the subjects of most immediate national concern then—whatever be the questions making the sharpest divisions in the public conscience—will be the political issues. Neither Mr. McKinley nor Mr. Bryan, neither editor Morss nor Senator Hanna, can stop the flowing of the tide of opinion. The tide will carry the platform-makers along with it, and they will be studying, when the time comes, not how they may stem it, but how they can make the best use of it and derive the most advantage from it. It is easy to say what will not be the uppermost consideration next year. Mr. Morss is right in saying that it will be useless to expect to change our monetary standard while the Republicans control the Senate. As they have secured a majority for at least six years to come, it will be simply a waste of powder for the Democrats to put the silver issue in front. All that they could expect in the most favorable event would be a change to bimetallism of some kind, national or international, about the year 1907. That is too distant and too problematical to engage present effort. No enthusiasm can be enlisted in a contingency so remote.

The situation is greatly changed since the fight for free coinage was going on in the seventies and eighties. Then the Republicans professed to be as good silver men as the Democrats. If the Democrats fathered the Bland bill, the Republicans fathered the Sherman bill, which "did more for silver" than the former measure. If the Democrats were for free coinage by separate action of the United States, the Republi-

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cans favored the same end by international agreement, which was safer. And so the *ignis fatuus* was always dancing in front of us, apparently within reach, but just beyond our grasp. Now, however, the situation is wholly different. The Republicans are no longer pretending to favor silver. They no longer favor an international conference to "rehabilitate" it, although they would join one if it were called by some other nation of the first rank, as it will not be.

The prospect being as it is for six years to come, the most sanguine bimetallist must be under depression of spirits. The inspiration of hope is wanting. Even Mr. A. J. Warner, who may be called, since the death of Mr. Bland, the veteran of fiat money, is said to take a despairing view of the bimetallic future. It is certain that Mr. Bryan is not upholding the cause with his usual vigor. He has two words to say about Trusts where he says one about silver. He has said that he considers the money question only one branch of the Trust question. Very likely Mr. Morss did not give utterance to his views without some assurance that they would be agreeable, or not disagreeable, to Mr. Bryan. All that can be said now is that the Democratic party is drifting away from the financial plank of the Chicago platform, and that the campaign of next year will most probably be fought on the other issues which Mr. Morss has indicated.

THE INTEROCEANIC CANAL.

The problems of an interoceanic canal form the text of an instructive article in the June number of the *Political Science Quarterly*, by George L. Rives. Mr. Rives considers all the questions involved, but gives most attention to an exposition of the legal ones which are raised by the demand for "a canal under American control." This phrase has been repeated so often that it has come to be accepted by many as a self-evident proposition, yet it ignores several important considerations, and among others these: (1) the Clayton-Bulwer treaty with England, in which we agreed that we would never acquire or exercise such control; (2) the consent of Nicaragua, Costa Rica, Colombia, or whatever countries the canal passes through; (3) the means necessary to make such control permanent and effective, and the cost of the same.

What is meant by "American control" of an interoceanic canal? It does not mean exclusive right to use the canal. Nobody has ever suggested that idea. Every calculation that has ever been made respecting the cost and the revenue of the canal has been based upon the largest possible traffic. It has been assumed that all nations will use it on equal terms, and that the tolls will be made low enough to attract not only the commerce that now goes around the Horn, but a large share of that which crosses the continent by rail, and some part of that which now goes via Suez. Neither Great Britain nor any other country could consent to discriminating tolls on an interoceanic canal. The Clayton-Bulwer treaty was framed primarily to prevent such discrimination. Moreover, Nicaragua has treaties with most of the nations of the Old World guaranteeing them equal rights of passage through any canal that may be made through its territory. Great Britain may consent to the abrogation of the Clayton-Bulwer treaty, but only on condition that the canal tolls shall be as low to her ships, her subjects, and her goods as to those of any competitor. Neither France nor Germany could consent to be put at a disadvantage commercially in respect of tolls, since discrimination against them would be tantamount to exclusion from the canal altogether. If the Suez Canal had never been neutralized by treaty, if it belonged solely to England in such a way that she could do what she liked with it, she could never adopt discriminating tolls on it without finding herself at war with the whole world.

We may assume, then, that "American control" does not mean the exclusive right to use the canal commercially, nor the right to give our own people an advantage over others. There is only one other thing that it can mean, and that is the right to pass our war-ships through it in time of war, and to prevent the enemy from doing so. Obviously, these rights can be exercised in time of war only on condition that we are strong enough on the line of the canal, and at both ends of it, to fight off the adversary. The right to pass the *Oregon* through the canal last year (if there had been a canal) would have been of no worth unless we had been able to guarantee that no harm would be done to her or to the canal itself while she was making the transit, and that she would not meet a superior enemy when she emerged from it. Mr. Rives thinks that without such guarantee Capt. Clark would have preferred to take his chances by the Straits of Magellan. A very small amount of dynamite would suffice to disable a lock and to imprison any and all ships that might be passing through. Of course the enemy would make the utmost efforts to cripple the canal unless he were restrained by treaty from doing so.

Therefore, American control, in Mr. Rives's opinion, requires continuous military occupation of the country through which the canal passes, supplemented and sustained by paramount naval strength, situated in close proximity to the Atlantic terminus. This is mainly a question of cost, but it is not without its moral aspects. How are we to acquire the right to occupy the country in question? Such occupation is not likely to be granted peacefully. It is not likely that Nicaragua, for example, will surrender her sovereignty unless compelled by arms. Are we to invade her if she declines to do so? Would any large number of the American people justify such a step? There may be some persons so addled by the catchwords "American control," "Monroe Doctrine," etc., that they would see nothing wrong in our seizing any Central American country that denies or questions Mr. Olney's doctrine that our fiat has the force of law on this continent; but it is not probable that we shall resort to such measures unless we have better reasons for doing so than have been advanced as yet.

The conclusion that the readers of Mr. Rives's article will draw from it is that an international guarantee of the neutrality of the canal is much better and a great deal cheaper than any guarantee of our own. With an international guarantee, the only protection needed would be that of an ordinary police force, whereas our sole guarantee would require effective military control of the entire line, and effective naval control of the termini. The former would probably imply 30,000 men either on the isthmus or within hailing distance. The latter would be an indeterminate quantity. It might require us to have the largest navy in the world as a permanent addition to the national budget. It might involve us in a larger expense than all the saving which the canal could bring to our commerce.

Mr. Rives takes the Panama Canal into his reckoning, and holds it to be the President's duty to give that enterprise the same impartial consideration as the Nicaragua. His article is interesting in all its phases, and, while his treatment of the subject cannot be considered exactly novel, it is so clear and complete that it must have considerable influence on current opinion and discussion.

AN INTERESTING EXHIBITION.

LONDON, June, 1899.

The International Society of Painters, Sculptors, and Gravers, as it calls itself, having its headquarters at Knightsbridge, began its career a year ago, and yet already it is felt that if it will but persevere, if the small public that can appreciate it will but give it the necessary support, it must prove a more formidable power for the Royal Academy to reckon with than any number of Royal Commissions and big books of denunciation. Not that it was started in opposition. The object of the Grosvenor Gallery was, practically, to rival the Academy, to represent all the outside forces, to provide a shelter (and a befitting one) for distinguished, or interesting, or promising artists who found the doors of Burlington House shut against them. But the International was formed by a little group of men, with Mr. Whistler as their President, not to revolutionize or reform or represent or rival anything, but simply because it was

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amusing to try, by means of discriminate invitation and selection, of intelligent hanging and arranging, to make a show that would prove a pleasure, and not a torture, to all who visited it. And it so happens that nothing is so badly needed at the present moment as just such a show. The necessity of covering an enormous wall space has put a premium on incompetency. The lowering of the exhibition standard has encouraged the amateurs. And in the dreadful medley that is the result, good work is lost sight of. It gradually disappears, for the self-respecting artist hesitates to dishonor his pictures by submitting them to so humiliating a test.

Against this evil the International Exhibition proves a triumphant protest, and it is because I think the evil so serious, though not half well enough realized, that I dwell on the general character of the show rather than on individual contributions to it. All the pictures hung may not be masterpieces, to be sure, but at least they are treated as if each were worthy of consideration—and, indeed, if it were not, why should it have been accepted? The walls, of a good gray-green, make a pleasant neutral background, the light is tempered by a canopy, and the pictures, instead of being jumbled up into a mere mosaic of frames, hang never more than two deep, while around each is the little space as important to a painting as the margin of white paper is to a page of text. If the result is that room can be spared for not quite two hundred and fifty pictures, so much the more reason have we to be thankful. It is quality that counts, not quantity. Another advantage is that these comparatively few are, more or less, in sympathy; at all events, different methods and styles are never allowed to conflict, to kill each other. When discord is thus avoided, when every canvas is duly respected, genius does not run the danger of disappearing for the moment, or of suffering from its neighbors; the honest endeavor or experiment is seen at its very best. Such careful arrangement immediately gives dignity and harmony to the walls. The collection can be looked at, not only comfortably, but with absolute enjoyment. Of course, it may be said that the system of inviting contributors must lead to injustice, that the most perfect committee is sure to have its prejudices and preferences, that some good men are bound to be left out. But still, in the end, the system, no matter how much abused, would be productive of less evil than the Academy's plan of considering any and everything any and every man, woman, or child may choose to submit. The more difficulty there is in obtaining admission into an exhibition, the better it must be for that exhibition.

But it is not necessary to theorize when we have the International as a practical example of how the system works. I do not count the New Gallery, where the same rule is supposed to prevail, for there, though there is a committee made up partly of artists, I doubt very much if they are the ruling force. Besides, they are mostly Academicians, with, presumably, Academical axes to grind. The comparison may be made more reasonably between the International and the Academy. It is a very few weeks since I wrote that the successes at this year's Academy could be reduced to two small pictures—a portrait and a landscape. And now, if I turn to the younger institution? At once, I am confronted by a difficulty. I find in the four or five rooms—there are sixteen galleries at Burlington House—more good, more interesting work than I can mention without my letter dwindling into a mere catalogue, and I find also some extremely distinguished work. Here you have a President who not only is useful as a figurehead, but is a painter accepted by all other painters as a master. It would matter little at the Academy, one way or the other, if Sir Edward Poynter did or did not exhibit. Mr. Whistler's appearance at the International is an event of the greatest artistic importance—especially as three of the six paintings he contributes have never been shown to the public before. One is a little nude, the other two are portraits—small ovals: "Violet and Rose, Carmen qui rit," and "Rose and Gold, the Little Lady Sophie of Soho"—both very lovely harmonies of color, full of the elegance and reticence which always make so many of the canvases hung near Mr. Whistler's seem but tentative, experimental, uncertain. It is to be noted, too, that Mr. Whistler's influence develops an appreciation of these very qualities in his pupils. Not very far from his group of pictures is a study of a head, "Étude de la Semaine," by Miss Inez Bate, who, the catalogue explains, is "Massière de l'Académie Carmen, Élève de Whistler," and its sober restraint, its dignity, lend it a distinction you do not look for in a student's work. How often, I wonder, would one's attention be called to the "Week's Study" by an Academy student, if it were hung at Burlington House?

The same difference that exists between the presidents of the two institutions is as striking when it comes to the rank and file. At the International the trouble is to discover, not the successes, but the failures. But let me quote Mr. R. A. M. Stevenson on the subject:

"While the first impression at the Academy is appalling, the first sight of this place is inviting and delightful; while one takes some time to find out that there are good works at Burlington House, one admits only slowly and reluctantly that there are bad pictures at the International."

And he adds that "perhaps bad may be a rather strong word, since the International does not go as far down as the Academy." But, really, it has been amusing, in reading the criticisms in the London papers, to see how the various critics have disposed of this majority of good work, to which the usual London show has not accustomed them. One or two have been content to consider only the pictures of the group represented by Renoir, Pissarro, Monet, Sisley, who, it has been said, must be discounted in reckoning the actual forces and prospects of the Society, though I cannot understand why, since they are unquestionably among the forces that have made a large proportion of the exhibitors what they are. In some cases interest has been concentrated chiefly upon the Glasgow men; very naturally, as this is the one gallery in London where Mr. Guthrie, Mr. Walton, Mr. Lavery, Mr. Paterson, and the others are received and recognized and honored. I cannot help feeling that their accomplishment has not yet justified the great expectations they aroused several years since, but their work is never commonplace, and their continual endeavor to develop style above all else prevents their tumbling into the trivialities of the Academy or wrecking themselves on the sham revivals and archaic affectations of the mere notoriety-seeker. Nor have they ceased to concern themselves with the decorative quality of a canvas, so that you may be sure of some definite design, some well-thought-out arrangement of color, even in the portrait or landscape in which you are most keenly conscious of their indifference to tones and values.

Then, again, the important fact may be the presence of Miss Beaux, who made such a sensation last year, and Mr. Chase, who, in London, has hitherto been known only by reputation, and I think he might have sent pictures that would sustain that reputation more brilliantly. Or, the chief attraction is the work of the Scandinavians, Kroyer and Thaulow; of the Germans, Stuck and Klimt; of the Italians, Mancini and Fragiacomo; of the Dutchman, James Maris, or of the individual painters independent of any group—Muhrman, Mark Fisher, McLure Hamilton, for too many years resident in England to be identified entirely with the Americans—or Couture, or Sandys, or Walter Crane, or Greiffenhagen; and so I might go on through a long list. But I have said enough to give an idea of what manner of painting, or painter, is to be looked for at the International.

The prints and drawings are still more distinguished as a collection, and they are as admirably hung as the black-and-white work at the Academy is chucked carelessly together. The men of the sixties are given a place, and for me this mingling of the older with the younger generations is immensely helpful. There are studies by the English Alfred Stevens, the designer of the Wellington Monument at St. Paul's, and by the German Menzel. A room—a white room—is set apart for Mr. Whistler's etchings, among them two beautiful little impressions of the Jubilee Naval Review, now seen for the first time. There are several of Mr. Cole's wood engravings after the English masters, already published in the *Century;* color prints by Mr. Oppler and Mr. Nicholson; etchings by Herr Klinger, Mr. Pennell, Mr. Strang; Mr. Sullivan's series of drawings to illustrate "Sartor Resartus." But, again, I am in danger of cataloguing. All I have space to say is that the average in the black-and-white section is higher than in any other, and that the sculpture, if there is not much of it, is excellent, while it includes one of M. Rodin's most perfect little groups. Altogether, the radicals, who are so eager to put a stop to all exhibitions because both Salon and Academy have failed the artist, could not do better than visit the International, and from it borrow a far simpler solution for the most serious artistic problem of the day. N. N.

SAN GIMIGNANO.

FLORENCE, May, 1899.

Now if it were not for the recent fleeting gleam of popular interest in which the little Tuscan town of San Gimignano has been basking on account of the Dante celebration there, I should probably never set down for publication a word about the place. Nor do I intend to describe the goings on at the aforesaid celebration, firstly, because I was not present, and, secondly, because, as near as I can make out, it was like most celebrations—speeches, dinners, processions, and band-concerts. Neither can I speak learnedly of the surprisingly numerous and interesting frescoes in the local churches, by Benozzo Gozzoli, Ghirlandajo, and other worth-

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ies. What, indeed, remains to be mentioned? Little, it is true; but there is always a pleasure in chronicling the obscure, if worthy, and bringing to light hidden treasures of even small price. The town, up to the present time, has been known to the elect only, and from the elect did I get my cue to go and stay there. So, as a mere matter of *noblesse oblige*, I should be extremely shy of "giving away a good thing" were it not for the celebration above mentioned, which has attracted such comparatively general attention to the town among tourists that I might as well raise my voice to tell them what San Gimignano is like when they are not there, and when no band-concerts are in progress.

What, then, is the mystic attraction of San Gimignano? Well, it is a mediæval town. Here, in seething modern Italy, only seven miles from the railroad, under the shadow of Florence, that great cradle of the new life of which the ending century has been so gloriously full, San Gimignano stands stolidly unmoved, essentially as it stood before that new life was conceived of. It was more on account of the local color of the place than of its somewhat slender connection with Dante—he spoke here in favor of the Tuscan League in 1300, not, as erroneously calculated, in 1299—that the town was selected as the stage for the recent cavalcades, speechifyings, and so on. And as a stage, the setting is certainly appropriate. The centre is occupied most properly among a sober and cleanly folk by the town well, which, with that perversity almost proverbial in wells, occupies nearly the highest land in town. If you will stand on the steps and peer over the curb into the capacious depths, you will get the keynote of the town; for the inner edge of that solid stone curb is like nothing so much as a blunt-toothed comb. Uncounted generations of bucket-ropes sliding over its surface have worn there a continuous fringe of grooves, so deep that in some you can hide two fingers. Turn and walk around the square, being careful not to step on the crockery and other small wares laid on the pavement for sale. The houses, you see, have rarely remained true to their original intentions. Doors have been made into windows, arches bricked up, and then other arches opened under them, to be perhaps superseded after all by a modern lintel. There are bits of fine old Siena brick and terracotta work over some of the more pretentious windows; a sturdy Romanesque chapel front of the eleventh century serves as a wall to the stable-yard; and dozens of other tracks of the whirligig of time are obvious. Indeed, it is said that the town is mentioned as far back as 921. In the middle part of the town plentiful traces exist of a wall of the twelfth century.

In the sixteenth century a much more extensive wall was constructed, and this wall, with its round bastions, its machicolated gates, and its embrasures for the primitive cannon with which it was at intervals defended, still remains in almost perfect preservation. Outside of it the town, with true mediæval caution, has steadfastly refused to expand. Within it the highest point is occupied by the Rocca, or citadel, now for the most part a blooming garden. In the aimless streets that plough through the solid masonry of the town like deep crooked stone gutters, the pack-horse is still the characteristic beast of burden. The mail comes up from Poggibonsi, when it does come, in a shambling old curricle. Further than the telegraph office, electricity in any form has never penetrated. I think at "Il Leon Bianco" I once saw a newspaper, but I forget of how many weeks back. The policeman sleeps undisturbed on the café bench. A bicycle tourist is a seven days' wonder. In fact, I am ready to back my thesis against all comers, that San Gimignano is a thoroughgoing mediæval town.

And what of the inhabitants in a mediæval town? I wish I could truthfully say that mediæval costume is still worn. But, alas, to return to our stage metaphor, instead of the "legitimate" doublet and hose, coif and farthingale, a distressingly low-comedy style is prevalent; loud checked suit, pancake derby, and baggy green umbrella being proper festive attire. Since their disastrous playing at politics in the Middle Ages, resulting in loss of independence, dismantling of the fortifications, and a forced fealty to Florence, the inhabitants have to a remarkable degree minded their own business and cultivated self-dependence. Only once was I approached by a beggar (and this, mind you, in Italy) during my stay—of course, saving and excepting the children, who follow a visitor as if he were a kind of modern Midas. Almost every trade is practised in this isolated little community. The women twirl the distaff in the streets, and on the grass outside the walls bleach the narrow linen web that comes from the hand-looms clapping in the doorways. Dyed yarn hangs on the walls to dry. The cobbler, the harness-maker, the mason, the carpenter, the painter, the coppersmith, the potter, and all the rest of them can be seen intermittently at work. For nobody works very hard at San Gimignano. Why should they? Things were pretty well finished up there some time ago. Only the very old men and women are really active. Most of the able-bodied men lounge on the piazza and hold deep self-communings as to the advisability of doing anything to-day. It seems to take till about sixty-five to learn the value of time here. The types of face are not unpleasing—the women round-cheeked and cheery, brown-haired, taller and more attractive than the Sienese; the men spare, keen-faced, taciturn, pipe in mouth, and hands in pockets, looking not unlike New England fishermen ashore.

Until the olive-picking and wine-making season comes round, life is almost stationary. What need to go far for anything? Following her self-centred policy, the town is well provided, not only with trades, but with public buildings. There is the cathedral, a stone barn without, within miserably painted above its uncouth capitals in imitation of Sienese striped marble, yet enshrining the famous chapel of Fina, the invalid girl saint, whose simple death at the age of fifteen is beautifully illustrated on the walls by Ghirlandajo in some of his finest frescoes. There are the inevitable barracks, where a fresh section of that national scorpion, the Italian army, is quartered every six months. There is the hotel (as it loves to style itself), in an ancient "palace," where the infrequent visitor may watch the antics of his coming dinner as the geese chase the rabbits round the courtyard, or admire the sign-board, the ancient coat-of-arms of the town, a white lion on a shield half red, half gold. There is a mysterious factory that makes something very noisily in the sleepy late afternoon. There is even a theatre, shamelessly converted out of the ancient and venerable hall of the Council. There is a collection of pictures from suppressed monasteries and the like, in the upper chamber of the town-hall. There is a monastery, not suppressed, among towering cypresses in the valley. There is an orphan school that is always open, and a public library that is always shut. There are parish churches, bald and early, but full of mural work by Benozzo Gozzoli and other great names. There is a large hospital and a small penitentiary. What would you? Are we not a complete little community at San Gimignano?

But above all there are the towers. Concerning them it appears, as nearly as I can make out, that at some misty date in the early struggles between Guelph and Ghibelline, or the two local families of Ardingelli and Salvucci, one of the haughty nobles built him a large square tower some three stories high, lighted by graceful arched windows and finished with a corbelled parapet. This was altogether too much for the leader of the opposition, who promptly built a taller tower and capped it with a belfry. "Unbearable!" cried every one, and forthwith the tower-building fever seized the town. Towers sprang up in all directions, all on the same square plan and with the same characteristics. Height being the sole consideration, any stone was used, mostly an ugly gray slate; no time or money was wasted on decoration, or even windows, save a few light-slits; there was no attempt at finishing the top—you merely stopped construction with a certain course, ready to go on again if the tower across the street grew taller than yours. One builder was so thoughtless as to run a set of corbels round the top of his tower; but behold, a neighbor's overtopped his, and he had to add another story, leaving the corbels foolishly sticking out below it. Church and state became equally infected. The town hall had been finished, a fine piece of early Gothic, but the Council built a large tower next it, thereby blocking the side street, which had to be led through an arch in the base. The cathedral chapter laid their heads together, and, under the name of a campanile, ran up a perfect monstrosity. One desperate slave to family pride erected twin towers only a few yards apart. Man without a tower was but a thing of naught indeed. At last affairs got to such a pitch that the authorities interfered. A maximum height of towers, a sort of early building law, was fixed, beyond which no private person could go. Then the craze subsided and the town came to its senses again. But what a looking town! Everywhere within the limits of the early walls, in the heart of the town, ugly tall towers and ugly short towers and ugly stumps of towers gibber senselessly at the firmament above them. Viewed from a distance, the town resembles some manufacturing centre, bristling with great chimneys of odd shapes. Only recently one of the loftiest towers was pulled down as dangerous, and similar precautions seem to have been often taken before. And they are now little more than ruins.

Just when this craze occurred I don't think any one quite knows, but it is alluded to in a proverb of highly respectable antiquity; and in the town hall you may see Gozzoli's picture of Saint Gimignano himself, painted years before Columbus was heard of, holding a model of the town, of which the towers form about nine-tenths of the buildings. Similarly, in Domenico Ghirlandajo's fres-

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coes in the cathedral, groups of towers are used for unmistakable local "color"; and on the top of one we see a large bush already grown, as on an ancient ruin. By day they slowly splinter and crumble away under sun and wind and frost, of no more use now than they were to their pride-devoured builders. By night, from their pinnacles, the owls hoot derisively at each other, like haunting spirits of the disdainful nobles of the murky old days that saw their rise, and the moon plays strange mocking tricks with them. And as you end your stay in this corner of the Old World, and drive back to the New again, through the vineyards of the valley, you will turn for a last glimpse of the strange forgotten town, crawling uncertainly along its hilltop like some Rip Van Winkle who has lost his way, and all the poetry within you will be drowned in a flood of laughter at the inexpressibly futile and ludicrous appearance of the towers of San Gimignano.

S. F. B.

Correspondence.

FOREIGNERS AT THE UNIVERSITY OF PARIS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Will you please allow me to rectify an omission in my letter on Americans at the University of Paris? Besides the Comité de Patronage des Étudiants Étrangers, I should have mentioned another information-giving body, created especially to supply the needs of American students, namely, the Comité Franco-Américain, whose secretary, M. Henry Bréal, No. 70 Rue d'Assas, Paris, holds himself ready to answer all questions that may be addressed to him regarding studies in any of the French universities. American students, before or after arriving in Paris, may obtain from him information not merely on academic subjects, but also on the practical questions of expenses, lodgings, etc.

M. Bréal has just published, in the name of the Comité Franco-Américain, a pamphlet (in English), of about 140 pages, 8vo, entitled 'The Universities of France: A Guide for American Students,' containing very full information regarding organization, requirements for admission and graduation, and courses of study. This pamphlet may be had gratis on application either to him or to W. T. Harris, Esq., U. S. Commissioner of Education, Washington, D. C.—Yours very truly, W. S.

Paris, June 15, 1899.

Notes.

Henry Holt & Co. announce Krausse's 'Russia in Asia,' and 'Adrian Rome: a Contemporary Portrait,' by Ernest Dowson and Arthur Moore.

'Thirty Years of New York Politics—Up to Date,' by Matthew P. Breen, will shortly be published by the author, at No. 71 Broadway, New York.

Macmillan Co. will publish 'Insects, their Structure and Life,' a primer of entomology, by Prof. George H. Carpenter; 'State Trials, Political and Social,' in two volumes, by H. L. Stephen of the Inner Temple; and, somewhat later, 'The Government of Municipalities,' by Dorman B. Eaton.

The Scientific Publishing Co. of this city have nearly ready the seventh issue of 'The Mineral Industry: Its Statistics, Technology and Trade in the United States and Other Countries to the End of 1898,' edited by Richard P. Rothwell.

The Hudson-Kimberley Co. of Kansas City will publish immediately 'The House of Dreams, and Other Poems,' by William Griffith.

In August, Brown & Co., Boston, will have ready 'A Kipling Primer,' a bibliography by Frederick Lawrence Knowles, with a critical appreciation of Kipling's works and an alphabetical index to the plots of all the stories and ballads; and 'The King and Queen of Mollebusch, or, The Indispensables,' translated from the German of Georg Ebers by Mary J. Safford, with full-page illustrations.

The third volume of the Clarke papers, edited for the Royal Historical Society by Mr. Charles H. Firth, who, with Mr. Rawson Gardiner, shares the seventeenth century as his own, in matters historical, is in the press. It will contain many important papers relating to the West Indies. A facsimile will also be given in this volume of a very curious colored caricature of Richard Cromwell, on horseback, with the head of an owl.

Mr. Rodway, author of 'In the Guiana Forest,' of the 'History of British Guiana,' and of 'The West Indies and the Spanish Main,' in the "Story of the Nations" series, is now on a visit to England, having obtained leave of absence for six months from his duties of librarian and assistant secretary to the Royal Agricultural and Commercial Society of British Guiana. From the more serious subjects of history and natural science Mr. Rodway has recently turned to novel-writing. His 'In the Wilds of Guiana,' just out, forms one of Mr. Fisher Unwin's "Over-Sea" series. Mr. Rodway took to England manuscripts which will no doubt find their way into the publishers' hands.

Dr. Telting, sub-director of Archives at The Hague, is at present in the West Indies on official business. The West Indian Records preserved at The Hague having all been properly arranged, catalogued, and indexed, the Dutch Government has decided that the Records remaining in Dutch Guiana and in Curaçoa shall be similarly treated. It is on this mission that Dr. Telting is now engaged. He arrived in Paramaribo, the capital of Dutch Guiana, early in May, and, assisted by a staff of clerks from the several departments, he took in hand the documents preserved in the law courts, in the Treasury, and in the office of the Secretary of the Colony. Thinking he might learn something from the officials of British Guiana as to the preservation of documents from the ravages of insects, Dr. Telting paid a short visit to Georgetown, Demerara, where every facility for inquiry was given him by Governor Sir Walter Sendall. Neither in British nor in Dutch Guiana, however, has science yet disclosed the vermifuge that will preserve papers from the various pests that destroy books and manuscripts alike. After completing his labors in Dutch Guiana, Dr. Telting will proceed to Curaçoa, to arrange the Public Records of that historical island, of which Stuyvesant, the famous Governor of New York, was at one time Lieutenant Governor. Returning to Europe by way of New York, Dr. Telting will renew acquaintance with Prof. Burr of Cornell, with whom he formed agreeable associations at the time the latter was working at The Hague in connection with President Cleveland's Venezuelan Boundary Commission.

The Messrs. Putnam have become the publishers of the second edition of Miner Bruce's 'Alaska,' which we noticed on its appearance three years ago, and have much improved its dress. The author has revised and enlarged his work, and given it a needed index. There is a chapter on the boundary dispute, one for tourists in search of the picturesque, and one of practical suggestions to prospectors in the Klondike. The illustrations are numerous and serviceable, and there are several maps.

Macmillan's taking little "Pocket English Classics" proceed with 'Milton's Comus, Lycidas, and Other Poems,' and Byron's 'Childe Harold,' both edited by Andrew J. George.

FitzGerald's Omar is for a third time given the imprint of Thomas B. Mosher, Portland, Me., now in a "Vest-Pocket Edition," long and narrow as befits the designation. The binding is very dainty, and the printing to match. Mr. Dole, never weary of his subject, furnishes a brief preface.

Volumes ix. and x. of Mr. Charles F. Lummis's monthly *Land of Sunshine* are replete with information and entertainment not wholly confined to California. In "The Bones of Mitla" the editor presents some of the architectural marvels of early Mexican civilization, and there are short illustrated articles on Hawaii and Manila, while Joaquin Miller describes "Life in a Klondike Cabin," from personal experience. In volume ix. is related by several hands the memorable ascent of the Enchanted Mesa by Mr. Lummis, his little daughter, President Jordan and wife, and others, who easily discovered proofs of former aboriginal occupancy. The pictures of scenery, population, natural products (*e. g.*, the largest tree in the world), private and public dwellings and the like, will interest any one. Those who go deeper will be most struck by the bold and independent tone of the editorial writing, especially on public topics. This is not a common characteristic of the press, on the Pacific Coast or elsewhere; but courage has a permanent berth in the office of the *Land of Sunshine*.

A short but admirable preface, containing a brief biography of Amalie Skram, the author of 'Professor Hieronimus' (John Lane), and statement of her position among Scandinavian realists of to-day, arouses further interest in the story to succeed it by means of the following quotation from Björnson: "It is," he says, "the first time that a great author, in full possession of her mental powers, has had the opportunity of making such a study. Seeking quiet and treatment for a nervous affection, Fru Skram, of her own free will, became an inmate of a lunatic asylum. Thus she had a chance of studying one of those specialists in mental disease who are too apt to mistake rebelliousness for a sign of mental derangement. Of this doctor, of the patients, the nurses, her whole environment, she gives a picture so vivid, of such absorbing interest, that it can vie with the most thrilling romance." Vivid and absorbing it certainly is. We follow the fate of the heroine with feverish solicitude, and pity the husband hypnotized into the general be-

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lief in her insanity, but it is the horror, and not the romance, of the situation which thrills us. A mixture of domineering conceit, untruthfulness, and subtle cruelty enables the professor to secure and retain his patients; nurses and doctors alike come under his spell. The treatment and hopeless struggles of the sane to escape are portrayed in ghastly detail; and this dramatic piece of writing of a high order will doubtless serve as a weapon for those who distrust the despotic power of asylums.

Baker, Voorhis & Co. of this city are the publishers of a valuable compendium of the 'United States Internal-Revenue Laws Now in Force,' by Mark Ash and William Ash. The volume is accompanied by notes indicating the derivatory statutes, references to judicial decisions, regulations, rules, and circulars of departments, and is supplemented by a voluminous appendix containing laws of a general nature and miscellaneous provisions applicable to the administration of the internal-revenue laws. The book is made necessary by the enactment of the war-revenue law of 1898, and is intended to cover everything. Taking as a basis the last official compilation of the Commissioner of Internal Revenue in 1894, the authors have endeavored to "comprehend in one volume all the *express* law." The compilation is conveniently arranged for purposes of reference.

'Cases on American Constitutional Law,' edited by Carl Evans Boyd (Chicago: Callaghan & Co.), is a compilation of some hundred and fifty or more abridged cases. The author, in his preface, disclaims any intention of attempting to rival the well-known collection of Prof. J. B. Thayer, but has aimed at bringing together within the compass of a single volume a sufficient number of the leading decisions of the Supreme Court of the United States to form the basis of a university course on Constitutional Law. The cases are taken from the reporters verbatim, except that "certain parts, particularly statements of facts, have been shortened, and matter not necessary to the elucidation of the constitutional question involved has been omitted."

'The Conflict of Laws in the Province of Quebec' is the title of a little book by Prof. E. Lafleur of McGill University (Montreal: C. Theoret). This is, it seems, the first attempt made "to collect and systematize the rules for solving conflicts of laws derivable from our codes, statutes, and jurisprudence." Many circumstances contribute to make the study of the conflict of laws in Quebec specially interesting—among others the fact that the province, while retaining French law as the foundation of its jurisprudence, has not (following the modern French rule) made civil status and the law of persons dependent on nationality, but has, on the contrary, adhered to the rule of the old French law, which is the same as that of the English law—that such questions must be decided with reference to *domicile*. The volume is a convenient handbook, and has a good collection of cases.

The Weidmann publishing-house of Berlin has commenced a series of translations of Greek tragedies by the well-known professor, Ulrich von Wilamowitz-Moellendorff, of the University of Berlin. These translations have already been published in the learned editions of this scholar, and are here reproduced in the hope of reaching readers who would not naturally turn to a critical and more costly edition of an Attic tragedian. Besides the translation, which is invariably a masterpiece of literary art, each volume is furnished with an introduction of which it is the highest praise to say that it is characteristic of the author. Taken all in all, these volumes form no inconsiderable contribution not only to the literature of the classics, but also to German literature. The tragedies thus far published are the "Œdipus Rex" of Sophocles and the "Hippolytus," "Hercules Furens," and "Supplices" of Euripides.

American teachers of the classics, both in secondary schools and in colleges, will find much that is interesting and profitable in Dr. P. Dettweiler's articles on Latin and Greek instruction ("Didaktik und Methodik des griechischen und des lateinischen Unterrichts") which originally formed a part of Baumeister's recent 'Handbuch der Erziehungs- und Unterrichtslehre' (Munich: Beck), and are now obtainable in separate editions. Dr. Dettweiler, who is an Oberschulrat in Darmstadt, writes from long experience as a teacher, and from thorough knowledge of the extant literature of the subject to which his notes furnish an excellent bibliographical guide. The general portions of each treatise, dealing with the development, value, and principles of classical instruction, are, of course, of as great value here as in Germany; on the other hand, the particular considerations of teaching in the higher classes of the Gymnasia, while not at once and *in toto* applicable to our system, contain much that is of very great worth in regard to choice of authors to be read and methods of instruction.

Lippincott's Magazine will, in its July number, make a new departure in outward dress and in collaboration, and announces the sole literary remains of the author of 'David Harum,' "a long short-story, entitled 'The Teller.'"

In the June number of the *Library Journal*, Mr. John Thomson, of the Free Library of Philadelphia, reports on his endeavor "to procure a hand list of incunabula, (limiting the date to books printed prior to 1501) owned by colleges, libraries, and private owners in America"—this by way of contribution to the Gutenberg quincentenary celebration at Mainz. Already, he says, from five sources only he has got track of more than 1,500 volumes. He desires from any possessor of "fifteeners" a description embracing author, full title, date of publication and place (or press), and bibliographical reference (as to Hain or Panzer). In the same number may be found Mr. J. P. Edmond's account of his simple method of cataloguing fifteenth-century books.

We read in the Florence *Nazione* that on June 3 the Duchess Enrichetta Caetani di Sermoneta contributed $5,000 towards the fund for the perpetual Dante lectureship in Florence. This fund, by the resolve of the local executive committee of the Italian Dante Society, had been named for Duke Michelangelo di Sermoneta of Rome, her late husband, a devoted student of Dante and eminent commentator. The Dante Hall in Or San Michele is to be furbished up and restored to its original condition by November next; and for the seating of it the Duchess offered 600 lire, and our countryman, Prof. Willard Fiske, 200. The same paper contains the subscription-list for the scholastic foundation to celebrate the fortieth year of Prof. Pasquale Villari's "fecondo e glorioso" instruction.

The twenty-first annual report of Mr. W. E. Foster of the Providence Public Library dwells largely on the new building now approaching completion. An interesting feature of the work of the year is the establishment of a system of "home libraries," consisting of "little cabinets, of attractive design," filled with good reading, and placed in the needy portions of the city. The decrease in the number of books circulated is amply accounted for by the increase of newspaper and periodical reading occasioned by the war with Spain. It is interesting to note that the percentage of fiction circulated was 60.60, history coming next. The total number of books in the library at the end of the year was 86,235.

From the annual report of the Suez Canal Company it appears that the receipts for 1898 were $17,581,200, or nearly two and a half millions more than the previous year, and the largest on record, though the number of vessels (3,503 of 9,238,000 tons burden) was slightly less than in 1892, when the ships numbered 3,552. England sent 2,295 vessels, Germany 356, France 221, Holland 193, Austria 85, Italy 74, Turkey 54, Spain 49, Russia 48, Norway 47, Japan 46, Egypt 10, Denmark 8, America 4 (there were 3 last year), China 4, Portugal 3, Sweden 2, Greece 2, Rumania 1, and Argentina 1. Of the 219,000 passengers, a considerable majority were soldiers—English 34,000, Russian 23,000, Turkish 23,000, French 14,000, Spanish 10,000, Italian 5,000, and Dutch 3,000—figures of much historical significance.

At the last congress of the Sociétés Savantes, the Abbé Marsan read before the historical geography section a paper upon a project for communication between the Atlantic and Pacific Oceans by Nicaragua lake presented in 1785-1786 to Florida-Blanca, Minister of Foreign Affairs to Charles III. of Spain, by Count Louis Hector de Ségur, commandant of the castle of Péronne. The route suggested was "by the channel of the San Juan and Lakes Nicaragua and Lindiri." The manuscript of this memoir has been found in the archives of the château of Arreau.

Dr. Horace Howard Furness was given the honorary degree of Doctor in Letters by Cambridge (Eng.) University on June 13. The Public Orator, Dr. Sandys, had his word of praise for Dr. Furness's eminent Shaksperian labors—"virum et nobis et Britannorum poetæ summo conjunctissimum"—but also did not forget his father, that sound abolitionist, the late Rev. William H. Furness, D.D., "rerum divinarum interpretis humanissimi, Afrorum libertatis per vitam longam vindicis acerrimi."

—A return to the British Parliament of proceedings in county courts under the Workmen's Compensation Act of 1897 covers only three full months of the law's activity, but gives some interesting figures. The act provides that the amount of compensation may be settled by agreement, in which case it does not necessarily become a matter of court record. Failing agreement, two forms of arbitration are provided—first, an informal arbitration by a single arbitrator chosen by the parties; or, second, a formal arbitration before a county court judge, or an arbitrator appointed by the judge and acting under court rules. The number of cases recorded was 130, of which 104 were settled by the judge's award, 8 by an arbi-

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trators' award, and 18 by acceptance of money paid into court. The plaintiff won in 101 suits and lost in 29. In 38 cases compensation was given on account of death, the average award being £200. There were 53 cases of injury in which a weekly sum was granted—16 for total and 37 for partial incapacity. The average sum for partial incapacity was 12s. 10d. a week; for total, 11s. 4d. "It appears somewhat remarkable that the average payment for total incapacity should be less than that for partial incapacity. Probably the explanation is that partial incapacity usually means temporary incapacity, and that, in cases of temporary incapacity, even where the employer disputes his liability, he does not object, if he pays at all, to pay the full amount allowed under the act, *i. e.*, half wages. On the other hand, the cases of total incapacity include a larger proportion of cases of permanent disablement in which a smaller allowance than the maximum under the act is awarded."

—These figures present a strong contrast to the returns under the Employers' Liability Act of 1880. Of the 681 cases treated under this act in 1898, 596 were in employments to which the Workmen's Compensation Act now applies. The average amount of damages in case of death was, under the act of 1880, only £85 6s., compared with £200 under the act of 1897. Solicitors' costs under the earlier law averaged £22 14s., and under the later only £11 1s. It is known that only a small part of the claims come before the courts, as damages are usually given without question. If the rate of injury and death in Germany held for England and Wales, the number of cases would number at least 120,000, and probably more. Considerably less than one per cent. of the cases, therefore, come before the judge or arbitrator, and the larger share of those do not arise from a disputed payment, but are to settle the question of the person to whom the payment should be made. "In some of the largest and most populous industrial districts, where numerous accidents must certainly have occurred in the employments coming within the act, not a single litigated case under the new act had, up to the 31st of December, been taken to the county court and decided, either by the judge or arbitrators. Thus, there was not one case from the mining districts of Durham, Consett, and Bishop Auckland, with a population of 312,000, nor from South Staffordshire, with a population of 575,000, nor from Plymouth and South Devon, with a population of 480,000, nor from Cornwall, with a population of 314,000. In Bristol, with a population of 355,000, there was only one case, and only two in the circuit which includes Halifax, Huddersfield, and Dewsbury, and has a population of 582,000."

—The contributors to Prof. Petit de Julleville's seventh volume of the 'Histoire de la Langue et de la Littérature Française' (Paris: Colin) have kept the tacit promise of their work on the eighteenth century by giving, in their treatment of the Romantic period (1800-1850), a very generous attention to writers of clerical and reactionary opinions, namely, Chauteaubriand, Joseph de Maistre—and even Ballanche. Lammenais, Guizot, and Henri Martin hardly come off so well, although their respective writings are fully and fairly analyzed. As regards the principles of the Romantic school in poetry, one is pleased at finding neither violence nor paradox in the exposition of them given here; but many readers will doubtless be surprised at the systematic disparagement of Hugo's tragedies, which have been contemptuously lumped with the work of Dumas *père*, and summarily disposed of as "melodramas." By following a similar line of argument, it would not be difficult to squeeze 'Le Cid' into the same category. Among the novelists, George Sand and Balzac naturally hold the foremost places. In the case of the latter, however, certain details of criticism leave something to be desired. If the great novelist's predilection for the Quartier Saint-Germain is indicative of a somewhat "snobbish" turn of mind (from which some of his successors have not remained entirely free), is it also true that his portraits of aristocratic society in the thirties are alone wanting in delicacy and tact? Surely, not here only is Balzac's representation of human character deficient. Much the most interesting chapters are those devoted to a review of criticism (Émile Faguet), to the literary relations between France and her neighbors (Joseph Texte), and to the interdependence of letters and art (Samuel Rocheblave), during the singularly active period covered by this volume. M. Faguet, treating his subject in more academic style than is his wont, appears at his best in estimating the value and influence of Sainte-Beuve's criticism; and in view of the sly underrating which the memory of the inimitable *causeur* has of late years experienced, M. Faguet's judicious discussion produces the effect of a rehabilitation. The most serious lack of this issue is in the matter of bibliography, to which but very superficial attention has been given. It is enough to state that the division on Musset contains no reference whatever to Paul Lindau's deservedly popular monograph.

—The unsettling of time-honored customs and old lines of demarcation of educational institutions, in consequence of the development of new domains of knowledge into full-grown sciences, has been experienced everywhere. Just now, the universities and higher technical schools of Germany are engaged in a serious intellectual boundary dispute, which is complicated by such side issues as the graduates' status in society and the State. The distinction attaching to the Doctor's title has led the modern technical Hochschule to covet the right to confer this degree, hitherto reserved to the university alone. If the degree of "doctor of natural sciences" is granted by certain universities, why should not a four years' course at a technical Hochschule, followed by a *rigorosum* and a thesis, lead to a *doctor rerum technicarum?* Champions of the older institutions do not object to the title, but, they contend, it ought to emanate from the only genuine source of doctors' diplomas, *i. e.*, the university. Others, however, hold that the titles of architect, engineer, etc., if properly guarded by law, would render the new species of doctor unnecessary. The grave question is under debate, and, to judge by the amount of thought bestowed upon it by the press and other authorities, is in no danger of being settled with unbecoming haste.

GORHAM'S STANTON.

Life and Public Services of Edwin M. Stanton. By George C. Gorham. With portraits, maps, and facsimiles of important letters. 2 vols., 8vo, pp. 456, 502. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co.

There has long been a good deal of curiosity to know whether Stanton's private papers contained much material which would throw new light upon the history of the civil war and the reconstruction period that followed. The publication of the Life by Mr. Gorham seems to prove that his career was public in a more complete sense than that of most men, and that there were, with him, almost none of those private intimacies in which statesmen take confidential friends behind the scenes and reveal their inmost opinions of the men with whom they are acting, and the hidden springs of events in which they have a part. The man and his work were one; and he may be said to have had very little life outside of his official duties. With this impression, at least, we close these volumes, in the preparation of which the author is supposed to have had fullest use of whatever private papers Mr. Stanton left.

This air of complete absorption impressed all who met him during the years when he was at the head of the War Department. His face rarely changed from the fixed seriousness, tinged with sadness, which was its habitual expression. His eyes gazed abstractedly beyond his visitor, and his words were uttered in a quiet monotone, with very little motion of lips or facial expression. This might be varied by flashes of intensity or of imperiousness, but almost never by relaxation into ease of manner or the genial trifles of conversation which smooth the flow of public business. Even his approval came as a kind of official benediction, through which might break at any moment a notice to quit. The portrait in Mr. Gorham's second volume gives with faithfulness the expression of his countenance habitual in his periods of best health, but it was intensified too often by lines which marked a morbid condition of his nerves, and the look of weariness in the eyes as of those who are overdone by watching. As a lawyer the same quality of intensity had marked his work, making him a vehement advocate who saw his case in the light of partisanship for his client. To take sides and to be militant in doing so was a necessity of his nature. It was easy for Lincoln to be judicial and to rid himself absolutely of partiality and predilection; but for Stanton this was not possible—at least not until the heat of the fray had plenty of time to cool.

Stanton, although stoutly for the Union, had been fierce in his opposition to the Republican party, and continued denunciatory of Lincoln and all his works down to the very day of his own appointment to the War Department. Mr. Gorham says that no man of note had been "more lavish of expressions of dislike for the President himself than had Mr. Stanton." There seems to be no good reason for doubting that McClellan's assertions and illustrations in his 'Own Story' regarding the violent contemptuousness of Mr. Stanton's language in conversations with himself in the fall of 1861, are substantially true. Mr. Gorham makes no effort to explain the incongruousness in the sudden transition from this attitude to that of cordial and harmonious work under the President. The great desire to be of use to the country is hardly a sufficient solution. As Secretary he must work in strict and confidential subordination to Lincoln, while violent repulsion and contempt would destroy the necessary basis of successful coöperation.

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There is evidence that Stanton underwent a conversion scarcely less sudden and striking than the most marked of religious transformations.

Mr. Lincoln's biographers agree in stating that a feeling of strong personal dislike had followed the association of Lincoln and Stanton as lawyers in the McCormick and Manny reaper case tried in the United States Circuit Court at Cincinnati in 1857. They, with Mr. Harding of Philadelphia, a leading lawyer in patent cases, were counsel for Manny. By common consent Mr. Harding was to present the arguments upon the mechanical questions, but, in the arrangement of the arguments upon the law, Mr. Lincoln was made to feel that he had been ridden over roughshod by Stanton and discourteously crowded out of his place in the argument. There are differences in the stories as to the details, but Mr. Herndon seems to be conclusive authority for the fact that, on Lincoln's return home, he felt the ill-treatment keenly. Accident had, besides, made him aware of rude personal expressions by Stanton, such as men meeting Lincoln for the first time were apt to use and smart with shame afterward when they learned what manner of man they had tried to look down upon. As the one in the wrong, Stanton's dislike naturally became vindictive and even violent when, in so short a time, Lincoln became a great figure in the nation and was made President, Stanton opposing with might and main.

Mr. Harding, being often in Cincinnati after the civil war, told the sequel to Channing Richards, late the United States Attorney there, who is the authority for it, and an indisputable authority to all who knew him. Harding had been admitted to Mr. Lincoln's friendship, and the latter knew his chagrin at being in any degree connected with the painful incident. He was in Washington at the time President Lincoln was considering the appointment of a new Secretary of War, and, with a tact amounting to genius, Mr. Lincoln made him the messenger to Mr. Stanton, to say that he was invited, as an earnest War Democrat, whose ability and honesty were well known, to take the War Department, and give the country confidence in the integrity and intelligence of its vast expenditures and in the unpartisan aims of the Administration in its conduct. The choice of the messenger made personal explanations superfluous. That Mr. Harding came with the invitation told the story without a word more. Stanton received it as a man stunned and incredulous. After a long pause, in which the tumult of his feelings could be seen in his face, he broke out, "Do *you* tell me, Harding, that Mr. Lincoln sent this message to *me*?" Assured that it was so, with streaming eyes he said, "Tell him that such magnanimity will make me work with him as man was never served!" It goes without saying that so impetuous a nature would become radical in the struggle, once he was committed to it, and that whoever else might complain of arrogance in dealing with him, after such a renewal of relations Mr. Lincoln's leadership was easily safe, though it was sure to be kind and considerate.

In dealing with Mr. Stanton's change of attitude toward General McClellan, Mr. Gorham makes a very full analysis of the dispatches and letters which passed between the War Department and the headquarters of the Army of the Potomac. First came the rectification of Stanton's former supposition that there had been niggardliness in supplying the army and in fitting it out for a campaign. Next was the disproof of the General's imaginary obstacles, and of delays by reason of any hostility to him personally, or desire on the part of President or Congress to thwart him. This was inevitably followed by Stanton's discovery that the constitutional irresolution of McClellan was the sole cause of his tardiness in marching against the enemy, prompting him to exaggerate the forces opposed to him, and making a vigorously aggressive campaign an impossibility for him. The conviction that the General was a failure as a field-commander naturally led such a Secretary to vigorous efforts to remove him from command. The biographer shows that Stanton was quick and ardent in recognition and praise of all who struck hard at the enemy, and was intolerant only of timidity and inaction. McClellan had to take the same judgment as the rest, and the vindication of Lincoln and his Secretary is found in the earnest and unswerving approbation they gave to the officers who were finally developed, and who proved their ability to lead our armies to victory.

With Lincoln's death began a series of complications in our history which showed that the balance-wheel was gone and the engine racing in a way that threatened wreck and ruin. In the treatment of the convention between Generals Sherman and Johnston for the surrender of the Confederate armies, Stanton's impulsiveness ran away with his judgment. It is impossible to think of Mr. Lincoln as permitting the course taken by the Secretary, had he been living. The panic following the assassination and the attempt to murder Mr. Seward also is the best excuse for the total misjudgment of Sherman's real meaning and of the situation created by the negotiations. It was a matter to be handled delicately and thoughtfully, not coarsely and impulsively. Silence and confidential instructions to the General would have brought accord, and saved public excitement at a time when the calming of the public mind was the plainest dictate of prudence. Yet the manifesto published was of the class which provoke and accompany revolutions. Sherman felt it to be a travesty of what he had done, and was made to believe that it was published with intent to destroy his reputation. Mr. Gorham, however, writes of it as an advocate holding a brief for Mr. Stanton, and is able to see no flaw in his judgment or conduct. He rings the changes on the General's "admission of his 'folly in embracing in a military convention any civil matters,'" when the folly, as Sherman viewed it, was in failing to assume that the politicians would refuse consent to any plan not conceived by themselves. In the very letter quoted, he said, "I still believe the Government of the United States has made a mistake." In like manner, Mr. Gorham's denial that Stanton's manifesto implied that Sherman was violating known instructions given by Lincoln to Grant, is contrary to the natural meaning of the document, and that which was, in fact, given it at the time. So, the influence on Sherman of his recent conference with Lincoln himself is ignored, as is the extraordinary change in circumstances when Johnston declared he had power to surrender at once all the scattered forces of the Confederacy, and prevent that lingering guerilla warfare which had been the great apprehension of our military men when the larger armies should be surrendered. Scarcely ingenuous is Mr. Gorham's use of John Sherman's letter to Stanton as "testimony that he was sure Mr. Stanton would not allow his brother, the General, to be unjustly dealt with," when the whole letter was a diplomatic effort to soften Stanton's antagonism, and was based on his feeling that "gross injustice has been done General Sherman." The armistice had been expressly made pending the submission of proposals to the Government, and to publish violent condemnation of them at the very moment the rejection was sent, days in advance of its reaching Sherman, is so gross a breach of established rules in civilized administration that nothing but an existing panic can palliate it, and it was inevitable that Sherman should feel outraged. The only fair treatment of the subject at this distance in time is to admit, on the one hand, that Sherman's sketch of terms was defective and could not be accepted as it stood, and, on the other, that Stanton's course was under the impulse of undue excitement, and his publication a grave mistake.

The same fault of temperament marks the whole of Stanton's dealings with President Johnson after he had determined to side with Congress in the deplorable quarrel over the reconstruction question. That one of the President's cabinet should stay in his confidential office for the very purpose of thwarting the Administration, and should make his knowledge, thus confidentially obtained, the means of drafting a bill to be passed by Congress to prevent the President, as Commander-in-Chief, from directing his generals in their administration of what the bill itself declared to be a military government in the conquered territory, shocks intelligent people now by the mere statement. That the same officer, after condemning the Tenure-of-office Act as unjustifiable invasion of the executive rights and responsibilities, should himself use its provisions to defy the executive, when his resignation was requested, and afterward his removal announced, is a gross inconsistency accounted for only by the blindness created by passion. Mr. Gorham makes elaborate argument in defence of Stanton, forgetting that those who then approved his action because it furthered their partisan aims learned, with so hot a partisan as Mr. Blaine, to say at last, "If it had been President Johnson's good fortune to go down to posterity on this single issue with Congress, he might confidently have anticipated the verdict of history in his favor." The quotations which the biographer makes from letters of approval by distinguished men to Mr. Stanton at the time, need to be supplemented by the votes of Congress repealing the act almost as soon as Mr. Johnson left the President's chair. Its character as a revolutionary measure was thus confessed, and judicious friends of Mr. Stanton wish he had followed the example of Mr. Dennison, Mr. Speed, and Mr. Harlan, in quietly retiring when they found themselves out of harmony with their chief, as all other cabinet officers have done before and since.

Mr. Stanton's final official act was as inconsequent as the others of this irrational period of our politics. His party was nearly solid in favor of the impeachment of Mr. Johnson, and was still unanimous in condemnation of what was understood to be the

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Administration policy. That the impeachment lacked one vote of a two-thirds majority in the Senate did not affect the existing antagonism between the departments of the government, or the duty (if duty it was) of Mr. Stanton to stick to the War Office as a partisan of Congress. Yet he immediately resigned, giving as his reason that the failure to impeach was a failure to sustain the former resolution of the Senate that the President had no power to remove him and designate a Secretary ad interim. It is, however, a curious fact that the vote for impeachment was exactly the same as the vote for the resolution against removal, namely, thirty-five. In this latest step, as in the others, the biographer presents with great fulness what was the current party defence of Mr. Stanton at the time, but does not indicate the calmer judgment of the same party, which came with the sober second thought when the intoxication of partisan zeal had passed off. Here again Mr. Gorham would have done well to reflect upon Mr. Blaine's conclusion that "the sober reflection of later years has persuaded many who favored impeachment, that it was not justifiable on the charges made, and that its success would have resulted in greater injury to free institutions than Andrew Johnson in his utmost endeavor was able to inflict."

The true view of Mr. Stanton's character seems to be, that, with great intellectual abilities and high ideals, his impulsive nature made him exceptionally liable to the mistakes of intense partisanship. So long as he was under the influence of Lincoln's calmly practical and eminently sane judgment, his honesty and his great powers made him one of the most useful of public officers; but when left without that leadership, his eccentricities led him into many and great errors. The two large volumes of this biography come short of being historically valuable because they do not get beyond the limits of the thought and action of the period of political storm and stress, and give us no help in correcting the misjudgments inseparable from such a time.

MARSHALL'S INSTINCT AND REASON.

Instinct and Reason. By Henry Rutgers Marshall. The Macmillan Co. 1898.

Under this title Mr. Marshall essays to furnish us with a psychology of religion. Its last words, printed in capitals, are, "Be religious." Why? Because analysis shows it is in the highest degree desirable. Very well; most of us already feel that keenly enough. The difficulty is that the first step towards being religious is to believe; and not only do the minds of most men nowadays not readily believe, but, bad as it is to be deprived of religion, it is unquestionably still worse to cook up a factitious, unfounded, and consequently unstable belief. True, Mr. Marshall persuades us that religion is an instinct, and, therefore, not a faith. But, like other instincts, the moment it is broken down in the particular form in which it has taken root in us, it is apt to evaporate altogether, or, at any rate, to retain little vitality. Thus, the book, in its practical upshot, leaves us just where the majority of thinking men are already. Those who deem religion to be altogether baneful, had better avoid it if they do not want to change their minds. There are not many sentences in the volume as pro-religious as the following, which serves at once to illustrate Mr. Marshall's attitude and his way of constructing a period:

"We note also the existence of a continuous and partially effective opposition to rationalism by the established Christian Church; an opposition which seemed exceedingly perverse to the Church's opponents at the time, which appears extremely reprehensible to the body of thinkers to-day, but which, I am convinced, will not seem nearly so ill-timed nor so disgraceful to those who look back from the standpoint which will be attained in the future, however much they may deplore, as we all must do, the form which this opposition took and the methods employed to attain its ends."

It is certainly true that rationalism has been slowly declining. Since nineteenth-century science has taught us how truth becomes established, since Darwinian ideas have been applied to the history of mind, since Hegel's analysis of self-consciousness has been illustrated in studies of childhood, and since the phenomena of sub-conscious mind have become known, the pretensions of individual reason to solve the great problems have been at a discount. Yet, after all, it is our nature to reason, and we have to make the best of it. Progress never has come from the religious spirit, and never will, as Mr. Marshall acknowledges; so that the whole question is how far we are to carry rationalism, and at what point to check it. Mr. Marshall's doctrinaire anti-rationalism is rather amusing, considering that his whole book is rationalism undiluted with one single word dictated by authority or prejudice, or even instinct, as such. All that he contributes to the solution of that question is an argument to show that it is rational to pay great respect to our instincts, especially those of the broader kinds. We fancy one J. J. Rousseau said something like this, without being looked upon as the champion of unreason.

The author's method of philosophizing is heartily in the spirit of the times. He relies implicitly and utterly upon a line of evolutionary argument which may be sound and is decidedly fashionable. He assumes as unquestionable that every instinct must subserve, or have formerly subserved, some important need, and even sometimes seems to speak as if every tendency to reaction must benefit, or have benefited, the single cell as well as the whole organism. While he risks everything on such reasonings, he makes considerable general admissions as to the insufficiency of the evolutionary philosophy, going in some respects further than there was any need of doing. Thus, he grants to Mr. B. I. Gilman that "Darwinism" leaves the whole question of origins untouched. Darwinism, in the proper sense of the word, of course does so; but that a purely evolutionary philosophy can trace its way from a starting-point that logically demands no explanation back of it, is shown by the instances of Aristotelianism and Hegelianism, both of which philosophies are evolutionary and set out (or may set out) from complete actual indeterminacy. Equally needless and still more important is the confession that the idea of "progress" is purely relative to our own ideals. If there be in nature a universal tendency in any definite direction, no matter what, that universal tendency will determine ideals; and therefore any such tendency would be a progress purely objective.

For reasons that appear decidedly feeble, Mr. Marshall concludes that there is something psychical—in his phrase a "psychic somewhat"—to which he gives the name of mentality, in all action whatsoever. The reasons for believing that the rudiments of mind are much more widely distributed than we can positively make them out are strong enough; but to select "action" (whatever that may mean) from among all the objective elements of the universe of phenomena as defining the limits of mind, is a very different inference. It may be doubted whether a concept so vague and confused as a "psychic somewhat" can be of any service at all in philosophy. It would seem to be the business of the metaphysician to discriminate between the radically unlike elements of psychoses, and to find good reasons, as soon as he is able, for identifying these with different elements of phenomena objectively observed. One of the psychic somewhats would appear to be immediate consciousness, or feeling; but there is little or no reason to opine that this is at all proportionate to the amount of motion of its subject, or to anything else of that sort which the word "action" may denote. Consciousness is defined by Mr. Marshall as "the field of inattention." We may grant that this remark is founded on a true psychological observation, without admitting that attention and inattention differ otherwise than in degree, or that there is any threshold, or *Schwelle*, between them. Considered as a definition of consciousness, the proposition simply restricts that word to a particular kind of self-consciousness. Consequently, when the author applies the definition to the criticism of James and others, he simply misses their meaning.

Mr. Marshall reposes too confidently upon what he calls "mental and physical parallelism"—a monistic theory familiar enough in its outlines, though somewhat modified by the author—as against the traditional doctrine of a soul. To hold to a substantial soul is neither more nor less than to hold that mind and body really react. Action cannot take place without reaction, even if it can be so conceived, which may be doubted; for what would "action" mean without reaction? Yet the only considerable objections that Mr. Marshall brings against the theory of the soul are, first, that the action cannot be exclusively of mind on matter, and secondly, that it cannot be exclusively of matter on mind. The whole question is one of fact, and must await positive scientific observations for its settlement. Comparing it with other mysteries which have eventually been cleared up in that way—with that of the chemical constitution of the stars, that of the Trojan War, that of whether diseases are entities, that of meteorites, etc.—we remark that in those cases the facts were found to have little regard for the fine negative theories; and the simple idea of a soul seems to be rather more like nature's habitual answers to experimental questions than is any highly metaphysical hypothesis of mind-stuff and the like. Perhaps we may ultimately find that mind and matter are of the same general nature, and yet that there is a real mutual reaction between body and soul.

We could not undertake to do justice here to Mr. Marshall's very elaborate main argument. It seems to be essential to his position to maintain a natural classification of instincts into those which conduce to the preservation of the individual, those which go to the propagation of offspring, those which support social life, and finally religion, which checks the tendency to reason—or to

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eccentricity, which is much the same thing, from Mr. Marshall's standpoint. Reason he holds to be conterminous with choice, and as broad as our psychic life, and not at all restricted to the more superficial consciousness. Here, of course, he must expect strong dissent. The work concludes with two strong chapters, antagonizing hedonistic and utilitarian ethics.

RATZEL'S HISTORY OF MANKIND.

The History of Mankind. By Prof. Friedrich Ratzel. Translated by A. J. Butler, M.A. With introduction by E. B. Tylor, F.R.S. Colored plates, maps and illustrations. Vol. iii., pp. 599. The Macmillan Co. 1898.

In this the concluding volume of a most comprehensive work, we have a description of the manners and customs, arts and industries, religion, form of government and personal appearance of the tribes that live in the western and central parts of Africa, together with a short and satisfactory account of "the cultured races of the Old World," under which head are included the Egyptians, Berbers, etc., of Africa and the Mongols, Arabs, etc., of Asia. In a separate chapter the racial history of the modern Europeans is briefly told.

Of course in an investigation of this character, ranging as it does from people in a low stage of barbarism to those that may be justly termed civilized, all attempts at generalizations except upon the broadest possible lines are futile. Great similarity, no doubt, runs through each one of the several groups, just as it exists everywhere between peoples in the same stage of development; but the differences in bodily conformation and in almost every other aspect of life are so numerous and so marked that no scale of progress hitherto invented seems elastic enough to include them all. Even among tribes and nations belonging to the same generic stock, and living in close proximity to each other, apparently upon the same plane of culture, this statement is believed to hold good; and it is this fact which makes it incumbent upon any one engaging in an investigation of the present nature to deal with each people separately and in more or less detail. Such a method of treatment, no doubt, has disadvantages, in so far as it involves an amount of repetition that soon becomes wearisome, and yet, on the other hand, it gives promise of greater accuracy, and, when based on competent authorities and accompanied by a suitable index, it makes the work invaluable for purposes of reference. This fact our author recognizes, and accordingly he has spared no labor in the preparation of a history in which, as people after people pass before us, we can study their characteristics and note the points in which they agree or disagree, be it in physique or culture.

Naturally enough, in a panorama of this kind, it is the differences that are chiefly in evidence. They are sometimes individual, oftener, perhaps, tribal, but in either event they are not infrequently of such a nature as to call for an explanation; and it is in answer to this demand that our author is led to ascribe them, in part, to the admixture that has everywhere taken place between people who not only lead different lives, but who may belong to different races and be in different stages of development. From the earliest antiquity, and all along the line of contact between the light and dark races, or "between herdsmen and tillers of the soil," as our author more accurately describes them, this process has been going on; and so numerous are these crosses, and so varied the elements of which they are composed, that it is probably safe to assert that to-day there is no such thing known as a pure race, or a civilization untouched by outside influences. In Asia, for example, the southward march of Aryans, Mongols, etc., has made a hotchpotch of the peoples of India and their culture; while in Africa the Arabs and other Semites, in the course of successive invasions, have left their impress everywhere. Even in the heart of the Sudan and among the negroes of the Congo basin, the evidence of this is seen in the spread of Islam, in the prevalence of certain industries, especially the manufacture of iron, as well as in the agriculture and in the physical peculiarities of different tribes. Only in comparatively recent times and within certain limits has a stop been put to these wholesale irruptions and their long line of consequences. The Mongols, for instance, instead of hanging like a cloud over Eastern Europe, have been so effectually bridled by Russia and China that they are no longer a menace to their neighbors; and in Africa the same is true of the tribes that have suddenly, and much to their surprise, found themselves within the "sphere of influence" of some European Power. Only in the west-central portion of the continent, and outside of these "spheres," does the progress of the Fulbe warn us of the existence of regions in which the contest still rages much as it has always done.

Of the effects of this admixture it is impossible to speak in general terms with any degree of accuracy, for the reason that they are not uniform. The pastoral races were not always successful in their invasions; and even when they were, they not only did not always destroy the civilization they found in existence, or absorb the people whom they subjected, but sometimes, as in the case of Rome, they ended by adopting the civilization they are supposed to have destroyed, and were themselves absorbed by the people whom they subdued. Moreover, it is possible that those of us who hold that man is largely the creature of his environment, may ascribe the retrogression that has followed hard upon the irruption of a tribe of nomads upon their settled neighbors, to natural causes, rather than to the deteriorating effect of any admixture of races. Certainly, if we are to judge from the progress made in southern Spain during the seven or eight centuries that it was under Moslem rule, we should be justified in concluding that the relapse into pastoral life in portions of western Asia and northern Africa was due to the destruction of the forests, the exhaustion of the soil, or the drying up of the water supply, quite as much as it was to anything that the Arab may have done or left undone.

But enough of such generalizations. They contain nothing new, and our excuse for indulging in them is to be found in the fact that they embody, in an indefinite sort of way, conclusions which it would be impossible otherwise to set forth without trespassing upon the reader's patience. As a rule, these conclusions may be said to be unobjectionable, though there are times when they are believed to be premature. Thus, for example, while there can be no doubt of the existence of Semitic influence in Africa from the date of the Hyksos invasion (some 2000 B. C.) down to present times, and from the Mediterranean to the southern extremity of the continent, yet it is by no means sure (pp. 161 *et seq.*) that the earliest Egyptian civilization followed that in western Asia, and was borrowed from it. All that can be safely asserted is that the case is still undecided. We may also add, though the matter is hardly germane, that the proof of "the derivation of the old American civilizations from Asia," which was to be forthcoming in Ratzel's second volume, is not satisfactory. Resemblances there are—any number of them—in the manners and customs of the people of the two continents, just as there are between our Indians and the barbarous tribes of Africa, or the people of Great Britain in the time of Cæsar; but this does not prove derivation. And if it did, there is no reason why the argument is not as applicable in the one case as in the other, unless the facility of intercommunication via Bering Strait should be taken as the determining factor in the problem. Indeed, it is so regarded by our author, and if the configuration of the earth is the same to-day that it was ages ago, he may be right. It is a bad rule, however, that will not work both ways, and we must not forget that, leaving out of consideration the continent which, it is said, once united Europe, Iceland, and America, there can be no doubt that the Northmen were in Greenland, and, in all probability, upon the mainland of North America, some hundreds of years before "Columbus sailed the waters blue."

In conclusion, there are one or two considerations that have such a direct bearing upon the political conditions prevailing in our country to-day, that we bespeak for them careful attention. And, first of all, we have the statement, p. 558, based upon an investigation into the origin and distribution of the Aryan races, that "the fair Aryans," from whom we are graciously supposed to have descended, "do not acclimatize themselves in hot countries." This, it is said, is the "teaching of history"; it is endorsed by one who speaks with authority, and while it is not new, it contains a truth which should "give us pause" before we are enticed any further in a career that not only leads to the extension of our rule over tropical regions, but includes the assimilation, benevolent or otherwise, of alien races. Turning now to the ever present negro problem, we are told (i., p. 18) that it would be possible to forecast "the effect of culture upon race distinctions if we could say to-day, with approximate certainty, what will become, in the course of generations, of the 12,000,000 of negro slaves who have within the last thirty years been freed in America, and who will, in the enjoyment of freedom and the most modern acquisitions of culture, have multiplied to 100,000,000." Of the probability of such an increase there cannot, we imagine, be much doubt in view of the statement (ii., p. 328) that "their numbers in North America increase faster than those of the most prosperous white population." Moreover, it is borne out by the fact that (ii., p. 257) "whole islands, as San Domingo and Jamaica, have fallen to the share of the negroes; several States of the Union, as well as Nicaragua, show negro majorities, and in Brazil all classes are permeated by the negro element." To some of us this outlook

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is not very encouraging, and yet, in spite of it, and of the "harm that has resulted, and is still, no doubt, in a yet greater measure in reserve for future ages, owing to the presence of 8,000,000 of negroes in the United States," our author is hopeful, for the reason that experience has shown that "culture is not injurious to the negroes," and because "they have not wholly unlearned the work which they had learnt." Regarded from an economic point of view, this opinion is well founded, for it is admitted (ii., p. 322) that "the Southern States, in which those who were formerly slaves form 50 per cent. of the inhabitants," have been less injured than was feared by the abolition of slavery. Further than this our author does not venture in his effort to forecast the future; and we are accordingly left with the political portion of the problem unsolved, unless, perchance, the story, as here told, of the Turks (p. 552) in Europe, the Arabs (vols. ii. and iii. *passim*) in Africa, and the Russians and Chinese (iii., pp. 150, etc., etc.) in Asia, should be taken as an indication that they have not been any more successful than we appear to have been in finding a way by which a higher and a lower race can be made to live together upon terms of political equality.

Longinus on the Sublime. By W. Rhys Roberts. Cambridge (Eng.): University Press; New York: Macmillan. 1899.

The author of the tract "On the Sublime" is, in a sense, the Matthew Arnold of Greek Literature. Matthew Arnold, however, lived in a period that was singularly productive of masterpieces of English, and as he wrote for an audience that was eager to appreciate and echo his definitions, he could seldom sincerely pose as one crying aloud in the desert.

"When I reflect on the age in which Longinus lived," wrote Gibbon in his 'Journal,' "an age which produced scarcely any other writer worthy of the attention of posterity; when real learning was almost extinct, philosophy sunk down to the quibbles of grammarians and the tricks of mountebanks, and the Empire desolated by every calamity, I am amazed that at such a period, in the heart of Syria, and at the court of an Eastern monarch, Longinus should produce a work worthy of the best and freest days of Athens."

It was not till nearly half a century after this entry that the traditional ascription of the treatise to Longinus was fairly challenged by scholars. In 1808 the learned world, which had taken for granted that all the MSS. attributed the book to Dionysius Longinus, was mortified by the discovery by the Italian scholar Amati that a Vatican MS. indicated "Dionysius *or* Longinus" as the author. Last of all it was found that a MS. at Florence had the frank title "Anonymous." Without entering into the arguments, which are chiefly negative and of slender weight one way or the other, we may sum up the controversy by saying that the question at issue is whether the work was written by a third-century writer, presumably Longinus, or by a first-century critic of the Augustan period, possibly one Dionysius. Mr. Roberts has stated both cases with great fairness, and leaves the matter in the obscurity that must darken it until the discovery of a new MS. furnishes less dubious evidence.

The historical Longinus does not depend altogether, for his historical interest, on his alleged authorship. He was that famous minister of Zenobia, the Queen of Solomon's city, Palmyra, her instructor in Greek letters, and her chief adviser in the heroic resistance she made to the Emperor Aurelian. Aurelian, when he took Palmyra, put Longinus to death. Longinus is known to have been an excellent critic, and we have some fragments of his writings—hardly enough, however, to make a comparison with the present treatise of much value for the question of authorship. But Longinus owes his true lustre to the long-undisputed authorship of the work "On the Sublime," and, unless new evidence comes to back his claims, a generation hence, when the modern phrase "auctor περὶ ὕψους" shall have completely ousted the old title, the name and repute of Longinus will have very slight significance for literature. For the sake of brevity, we shall ourselves refer here to the author of the treatise under his traditional name.

The English word "sublime" is, of course, a wholly inadequate rendering of the Greek ὕψος. It is to be regretted that Mr. Roberts did not take the opportunity of this new and important edition to introduce a more satisfactory rendering. Ὕψος is easier to describe than to define, and probably there is no single English word that would reproduce it. John Hall's seventeenth-century translation was entitled "Of the Height of Eloquence," which comes nearer the original than the unhappy "Gallicism," as Dr. Johnson would have called it, now in use. But perhaps there is no phrase current in modern criticism that so nearly represents Longinus's idea of the word ὕψος as Matthew Arnold's "the grand style." For both critics, the secret of a grand or elevated style is ethical; in both, the study of literature is closely allied to the study of morals.

"What fact," wrote Longinus, "was before the eyes of those superhuman writers who, aiming at everything that was highest in composition, contemned an all-pervading accuracy? This besides many other things, that Nature has appointed us men to be no base nor ignoble animals; but when she ushers us into life and into the vast universe as into some great assembly, to be, as it were, spectators of the mighty whole and the keenest aspirants for honour, forthwith she implants in our souls the unconquerable love of whatever is elevated and more divine than we."

Ὕψος is, in short, the "high seriousness that comes from absolute sincerity." As Matthew Arnold relied on illustration rather than on definition to convey his idea of a "tonic" passage, so Longinus, with the unerring good taste that has made his criticisms of permanent value, illustrates his maxims from the whole range of Greek literature. He was a Greco-Roman sophist in the technical sense, but he never yielded to the Sophistic weakness of treating of minor and inferior authors on the same plane as the heroes of poetry. Like a nineteenth-century critic encouraging a reaction against the eighteenth-century manner, Longinus insists that the faultless productions of a Lysias or of an Alexandrian poet are not to be preferred to the work of a truly great writer like Homer whom it is possible to catch nodding.

Greek literature in its decadence produced two critics of importance, Dionysius of Halicarnassus and Longinus. The latter ranks with Plato and Aristotle as the third of the three greatest critics of Greece. Longinus has not the rigidly analytical spirit of Aristotle; he is a critic of the intuitive type of Plato, with an enthusiasm that was troubled by no philosophical *arrière pensée*. He has the enormous advantage over his predecessors of not being confined to a single literature. We possess only a third of his treatise; but no century, from the earliest times to the beginning of our era, is unrepresented in his quotations. It is a catholic taste that can draw on Sappho, Moses, and Cicero in a breath. After illustrating from literature the loftiest expressions of the divinity of the gods, Longinus adds: "Similarly, the legislator of the Jews, no ordinary man, having formed and expressed a worthy conception of the might of the godhead, writes at the very beginning of his laws, 'God said' —what? 'Let there be light, and there was light; let there be land, and there was land.'" Mommsen, who thought that the treatise was written in the early days of the Empire by an unknown author, was led by this passage to suggest that he was a Hellenized Jew. Here is a Greek critic, then, who has some acquaintance with Latin, and even with Hebrew literature. We owe to his wide range of quotation several passages from Greek literature that are nowhere else preserved, and, most important of all, that famous ode of Sappho—"not one passion but a congress of passions"—which Catullus translated. As Mr. Roberts points out, Longinus has not given us any of those great classical definitions that light up the 'Poetics' of Aristotle, yet if we had to judge of all the glory that was Greek literature from only one or the other, it is the enthusiast Longinus from whom we should gain the clearer and wider conception.

The treatise has been much neglected by English editors. Mr. Havell's translation, published in 1890, did much to encourage the study of Longinus among general students of the history of criticism. Mr. Roberts has now given us a critical edition of the text with a parallel translation, a valuable introduction and appendices, which, if they do not embody any new matter, present with admirable clearness all the previous work done on the essay. We wish he had included the fragments of the historical Longinus for the convenience of those who wish to compare the styles. The post-classical Greek of Longinus has no great beauty to lose in translation—a fact which greatly simplifies the translator's task. Mr. Roberts's version is in excellent English, and, generally speaking, his renderings of the quotations are good; it is unfortunate that, of all the bad translations of the Sappho ode, he should have chosen that of the late John Addington Symonds; he might, however, have taken Gladstone's, which is one degree worse.

A Literary History of Ireland from the Earliest Times to the Present Day. By Douglas Hyde, LL.D., M.R.I.A. London: T. Fisher Unwin; New York: Scribners. 1899. Pp. xviii, 654.

After all that has been said and done, there are few less sentimental people than the Irish. There are few more inclined to *mauvaise honte*, more apt to be moved by the sneers of those above them; few less disposed to let a ray of sentiment (on all but the religious question) stand in the way of their individual progress. They conserved through the penal and ascendancy days sufficient national peculiarities in language, dress, and music through which to exhibit distinctive national traits and customs as honorable as those so jealously guarded by the Scotch and Welsh.

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Their object has been to obliterate rather than to conserve distinctive national life, and of late years Irishmen have had to deplore the peasantry beating their children who lisped Irish in districts to which came Continental savants to study the Irish branch, purest preserved and philologically most important of the tongue once common over Western Europe and the British Isles. In 1835 a German who travelled in Ireland calculated that out of a population of seven millions, four millions spoke Irish "als ihre Muttersprache." The census of 1891 showed that while 750,000 were still bilingual, but 66,000 spoke Irish only. There has of late years been a vigorous effort, likely to be attended with some measure of success, to preserve and extend the use of Irish, not to the exclusion of English, but as educational and enlightening, tending to self-respect and breadth of mind among the Irish people.

Dr. Hyde, fully qualified as a scholar and philologist, has been foremost in this movement. In the work before us we have the outcome of his deeper studies in the history of the language and its literature. The last chapter is an appeal for its preservation as a spoken tongue. The appearance of this book has been long looked forward to. In breadth of view and erudition anticipations have been justified. The style is, however, somewhat ponderous. While no collection of books relating to Ireland will be complete without it, it will be kept rather for reference than for reading. Most of the old cycles of story related are familiar to those conversant with the subject and who are likely to purchase the book. For such they might have been curtailed. For those fresh to the subject they are not made sufficiently interesting. Dr. Hyde has not Dr. Joyce's faculty for popularizing knowledge on Gaelic subjects. This does not, however, take from the great and essential value of the book. We only regret that our space will not permit of a full exposition of the contents. Dr. Hyde cites the authority of German and French scholars for the belief that there are still in existence 133 Irish MSS. copied before 1600, and that the total literature produced by the Irish before the seventeenth century and still existing would fill 1,000 octavo volumes. There is in the Royal Irish Academy alone a large body of MS. "pieces," from quatrains to long poems and epic sagas. Dr. Hyde refers to the correspondence of genealogies and the correct noting of eclipses: "The Annals of Ulster, annals which treat of Ireland and Irish history from about the year 444, but of which the written copy dates only from the fifteenth century, contain from the year 496 to 884 as many as eighteen records of eclipses and comets which agree exactly, even to the day and hour, with the calculations of modern astronomers." Again: "We may, then, take it, without any credulity on our part, that Irish history as drawn from native sources may be very well relied upon from about the middle of the fourth century."

The Irish alphabet, still in use, was no doubt borrowed from the Romanized Britons. The general use of letters is to be attributed to the early Christian missionaries. Ogham is essentially an Irish system of writing to be found only where Irish settlements or Irish influence extended. Some of the Ogham pillars "are gravestones of people who died so late as the year 600, but what proportion of them, if any, date from before the Christian era, it is yet impossible to tell." We have no specimens of Irish manuscript written in Irish before the eighth century; we have Latin probably of the fifth or sixth. The extent to which the Irish people, up to the catastrophe of the famine, and before the anti-Gaelic influence of the Government schools had worked, and even since and still, have preserved a taste for and recollection of the old literature, bears out Dr. Hyde's insistence concerning the extent of literary culture among the native Irish. Concerning the effective beneficial influence of that literature and of the great Irish schools upon national apart from individual character we retain our doubts. After all the bombast and glories of the ancient Sagas, Ireland was helpless to prevent the Danish and Norman invasions. She cherished no national ideal. The contests between the heroes and the clans of Ulster and Leinster and Meath and Connaught and Munster that form the staple of so much of Dr. Hyde's narratives, are sickeningly reproduced in the factions and rivalries of the present day. Literary interest there is, but circumscribed. Large admission is made by Dr. Hyde when, discussing the curious and involved Irish metres, concerning which he gives us so much interesting information, he says: "This . . . may help to place much of our poetry in another light, for its beauty depends less upon the intrinsic substance of the thought than the external elegance of the framework." To all but a comparatively narrow circle, ancient Irish poetry can be known but through translations. If through such, that is lost upon which its beauty mainly depends, it cannot be expected that it will arouse much general enthusiasm.

Seeing that Dr. Hyde appreciates the Irish alphabet as a "peculiarly beautiful" modification of the Roman, he gives no reason for not using it in this volume. The language is difficult enough of pronunciation in its own dress—doubly so in the cumbrousness of Roman lettering. The peculiar pronunciation of the dotted consonants in Irish is not fully expressed by the alternative addition, where Roman letters are used, of the letter *h* after the consonant. This valuable work is the outcome of Dr. Hyde's enthusiasm for the preservation of Irish as a spoken language. We do not understand why in its pages he thinks well to present it to his readers in foreign garb.

The dominant thought with which we lay aside this 'Literary History' is of the solace which native literature and song must have been to the Irish through ages when bereft of almost everything else.

Bibliography of Eighteenth-Century Art and Illustrated Books: Being a Guide to Collectors of Illustrated Works in English and French of the Period. By J. Lewine. With thirty-five plates giving specimens of the work of the artists of the time. London: Sampson Low, Marston & Co.; New York: Charles Scribner's Sons. $25.00.

The title of this book is to be understood as the bibliography of art books and illustrated books. It would not be strictly accurate to say that it is a bibliography of eighteenth-century art, in view of the fact that it does not deal with books which treat of that art. Where no mention is made of the very numerous French writers of our own time who have devoted themselves largely to elucidating the art of the eighteenth century, the title should, perhaps, suggest as much. Even if it did offer such suggestion, it would be hard to understand the phrases of the preface. It appears that our author thinks that the record is almost barren of bibliography devoted to "books with embellishments," which, as he truly says, are "now so much in vogue and so deservedly coveted by the amateur." There is one book devoted to "books with embellishments" concerning which the students of that important and curious branch of art are unanimous in praise. That book is Henry Cohen's 'Guide de l'Amateur,' which, whether in its fourth edition, now fifteen years old, or in its fifth edition as revised and enlarged by Baron Portalis, is as useful and as satisfactory as a book of the kind can be. This one bibliography covers nearly all the French half (which is really more than half) of Mr. Lewine's work, and to this has been added a very great number of monographs on different artists, also of the French school, together with the general treatises of the brothers De Goncourt, celebrated for their thoroughness and their complete presentation of the subject. The bibliography by Cohen and Portalis is devoted as strictly to books with illustrations as is Mr. Lewine's; and, as suggested above, there was little for the English author to do but to copy or restate what was contained therein; but the other works referred to above are, of course, treatises on the painter, the engraver, the decorator, the sculptor, the adorner of palaces and churches, as well as the beautifier of books.

On the other hand, the English compiler has gone a little farther afield than have the Frenchmen in that he has added to his list certain books which could not properly be called *livres à vignette*, namely, such as certain collections of costumes, and a book on garden architecture, which, though books on kindred subjects are certainly included in Cohen and Portalis, are not to be found there. Still, it is for the English part of the collection that one will eagerly buy the present volume. There were very few books published in England and illustrated in the dainty French way with prints from delicately engraved plates, but there were the vigorous caricatures of Rowlandson and the realistic grotesques of Hogarth. There were the half-English publications known under the name of Count Hamilton. There were numberless volumes with a portrait or two in each, and there were the archæological books which, from the beginning of the century to its close, were produced in England in some abundance. It would be an interesting task to make a classified list of the different subjects covered by the books named in this volume. One would be glad to know how many were French and how many English, how many are illustrated books proper—that is to say, with the text to which the illustrations are serviceable; how many are collections of unrelated plates held together by a thread of common location, as in the numerous "Galleries" of Dresden, Florence, and the like; and how many are books of archæological study. The maker of such a list will be amused by the different departments which he has to create for himself, and into which his list has to be divided. It was a surprise, when page 510 of this book was reached, to see that the heading "Songs," beginning at the foot of that page, was carried on and continually repeated for three pages more. There are actually forty separate titles of song-books, all illustrated sufficiently to become the sub-

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jects of Mr. Lewine's studies. Our student will find, also, in this book about English and French books some works which are neither English nor French, such as Treitzsaurwein's 'Weis Kunig,' which seems to be entered in its original form because there w[illegible] to be entered a French issue of it, and Gessner's writings in five volumes, needed apparently for the same reason.

The eighteenth century deserves especial attention from those who would know how much of good and valuable art is possible to times which are admittedly less strenuous, less significant, less in earnest about their fine art. The exact value of such art as that of Watteau and that of Reynolds, when compared with the more serious and, therefore, greater art of earlier times, is difficult to fix even in one's mind; and of proportionate difficulty is the appraisement of the minor arts of the same epoch—the prints in these illustrated books, as well as the delicately modelled and exquisitely chased metal work of ornamental design, and the charming paintings above door, window, and mantel. The curious mixture of reality and stagey affectation which marks the figure-drawing of the period, and the defects in the drawing itself—not so much defects in knowledge as in care and serious purpose, and mingled with a singular dexterity and swiftness of execution—all this is worthy of the most serious observation of the student of fine art, and the explanation of it is a fit task for the wisest and most perspicacious critic. The books we already have, have opened up the French side of this art very thoroughly and admirably, and we have to expect more and yet more of the present generation of students; but the English side of it has hardly been done as yet; so far as that is concerned, the statements of Mr. Lewine's preface are correct.

Volcanoes: Their Structure and Significance. By T. G. Bonney, D.Sc., LL.D., F.R.S., Professor of Geology at University College, London. G. P. Putnam's Sons. 1899. 8vo, pp. xiv, 332.

Volcanoes were among the first natural phenomena to be attentively observed by civilized man. The existence of Vesuvius, Vulcano, and other active or extinct eruptive centres in the midst of the Roman Empire led to continuous and minute observations upon many characteristics of volcanoes. Numerous excellent treatises have been written describing various phases of volcanic activity and decay, and discussing the problems as to the origin of the volcanic forces. In the English language the great work of Scrope, and the later one by his pupil, Prof. Judd, are well known to all students.

In the last few years some tremendous volcanic eruptions have occurred in distant parts of the world—New Zealand, Japan, and the East Indies; but while these great outbursts have been more fully described, and, through the newspaper and the magazine, have become known to a far larger number of people than older eruptions of the same character, it must be confessed that no great addition has been made to our understanding of the character or the cause of volcanic action. If this is true, a new general discussion of volcanoes must justify itself by its treatment of the later eruptions, or by a specially attractive or novel presentation of the older facts and theories. This idea seems to have forced itself upon Prof. Bonney, the author of the work now before us, for in his preface he remarks: "Were it not that Nature sometimes supplies new materials, there would be little excuse for another book on Volcanoes." It seems, then, perfectly fair to examine his book upon this basis.

The plan of it, as expressed in its chapter headings, sounds very fair, and seems to promise a well-thought-out scheme for the presentation of the subject. "The Life History of Volcanoes," "The Dissection of Volcanoes," and the like, convey the idea of a very systematic treatment of the materials, but examination proves that the system is not followed out to any great extent. The book is very largely a compilation of long quotations, descriptive of certain volcanoes, and thrown together without much regard for the scheme of its table of contents.

In the first chapter, on the Life History, we find presented sketches of various kinds of volcanoes, with bits of the history of many vents; and, altogether, the reader will gain some idea of what is considered the normal sequence of events about a volcanic centre, but it will be in spite of, rather than owing to, the order of presentation. Under the "Dissection of Volcanoes" one encounters a jumble of descriptions of volcanic mountains in all stages of decay. A long discussion of crater lakes appears here, and shorter ones of fissure eruptions and laccolithic intrusions. It is much more the internal structure of volcanoes than the dissection which is dwelt upon in this chapter. It is, no doubt, a difficult task to explain the chemical and mineralogical classification of igneous rocks to a lay reader, but no good can result from attempts to make the matter simple by misstatement. Prof. Bonney gives a crude explanation of some of the principal rock groups —omitting others equally important—and then indicates the nomenclature of each group after this style: "Then the holocrystalline forms are called Diorite; the semicrystalline, Porphyrite; the glassy, Andesite." It is true that he explains that he does not use these adjectives in their natural sense and as they are used by petrographers, but he leaves it very obscure what he does wish to express. The description of the structural forms of lavas, including all their physical aspects, is clear and comprehensive.

The chapter on "The Geological History of Volcanoes" is not a general discussion of the subject indicated, but a kind of abstract of the works of Sir Archibald Geikie and Prof. Judd upon the extinct volcanoes of Great Britain, with many points concerning which there is still a marked difference of opinion. In the following chapter, on "The Distribution of Volcanoes," there is a brief statement in regard to the active or not long extinct volcanoes of the world, outside of Great Britain. This enumeration and concise characterization of known volcanoes is one of the most valuable portions of the book.

The final chapter, on "The Theories of Volcanoes," vividly illustrates the difficulty of analyzing such an abstruse subject for the untechnical reader when it must be admitted at every turn that we are ignorant as to essential facts, and have but little basis for assumptions. The conclusion reached is the one familiar from earlier summaries, that we understand the physics and the chemistry of surface volcanic phenomena fairly well, but have little real knowledge of the deep-seated causes of volcanic action, including the origin of the magma and the force propelling it to the surface.

It seems, then, that Prof. Bonney's treatment of the older materials is not conspicuously successful. He has rearranged the descriptions of many well-known volcanoes to be found in earlier treatises, but without much reference to the apparent plan of his own work. As to the new materials supplied him by nature, it is probable that the greater number of those who take up this volume will already have read the same or much fuller accounts of Krakatoa, Bandaisan, etc.; at least that is true of America's readers.

The style of the work seems somewhat open to criticism. The attempt to popularize leads in many places to a rather colloquial form, often mistakenly thought to be the same thing as simplicity and directness of statement. The latter is far more difficult, and correspondingly more effective, as a rule.

History of the World: From the Earliest Historical Time to the Year 1898. By Edgar Sanderson, M.A. With Maps. (The Concise Knowledge Library.) D. Appleton & Co. 1898.

A publisher's note concerning the American edition of this book faces the title-page, and in it attention is called to the fact that Mr. Sanderson's 'History of the World,' as prepared for the United States, reaches the close of the war with Spain. This apparently incidental statement may be used to bring out the character of the volume. A *history* of the Spanish war, using that term in any proper sense, cannot yet be written, but much *knowledge* about the late contest is easily available, and that is all which is required for the purposes of the present series. Indeed, had Mr. Sanderson written his account of the Peloponnesian War in 404 B. C., or his account of the Lutheran Reformation in 1546, his pages on those subjects might well have borne a strong resemblance to the ones which we have just been reading. His comments and deductions would have been somewhat different, but the proportion of these to hard relentless facts is so small that the general appearance of the work would not have been profoundly affected thereby.

Comparing Mr. Sanderson's outlines of universal history with other similar sketches which have recently appeared, we find its chief value in the portions relating to the obscurer regions of the world—to those, we mean, which have had a relatively small share in the progress of civilization, and are, therefore, passed over by most writers as too insignificant for mention. Thus, for instance, in the case of the ancient world, Lydia, Phrygia, and Bactria appear; and in that of the modern, Siam, Burmah, the Sudan, Abyssinia, Central America, and Australasia. Roughly speaking, a fifth of the contents is occupied with information which, besides being ordinarily omitted from manuals, is likely to render intelligent readers of the newspapers direct assistance. On the whole, Mr. Sanderson has made his choice of topics judiciously, and shows that he has a competent store of historical information. There are a few standard authors to whom he is rather amusingly indebted, for example, Macaulay and Bryce. Besides quoting from and referring to them often, he more than once paraphrases their words without ex-

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press recognition, *e. g.*, from Macaulay on p. 431, and from Bryce on p. 214. In one or two other respects he is decidedly amusing. What the sentences are like in which he gives the modern student mnemonic assistance by coupling some matter of contemporary note with an ancient fact or circumstance, may be gathered from the following illustrations: P. 209, "A seven days' desperate battle at the place, north of Cadiz, called Xeres de la Frontera, familiar to us from the district's wine called 'sherry,' ended in the total defeat of the Goths." P. 332, "We must now relate the origin of one of the most flourishing minor states of the world, the Swiss republic, which, in the nineteenth century, became a chief resort for European and American tourists and derives therefrom a large increase of wealth for her people." Another diverting feature is the shower of adjectives which, doubtless for the sake of conciseness, Mr. Sanderson lets fall upon rulers and other great personages, *e. g.*, p. 476, "The worthless, witty, clever Charles II. reigned from 1660-1685." And facing this, at the beginning of the next paragraph, p. 477, "James II. (1685-1688), cruel, faithless, stupid, hard-hearted despot as he was, had a short term of power, according to the prediction of his shrewd brother Charles." Finally, we doubt whether such an ex-parte statement as the following is appropriate in a "concise knowledge" series. Referring to the Anglo-Russian difficulty of 1885 in Afghanistan, Mr. Sanderson says: "The act was a deliberate insult to Great Britain, and should have been followed by an immediate declaration of war. Mr. Gladstone, however, was Prime Minister, and Lord Grenville was Foreign Secretary, and the matter was settled by 'explanations.'"

Some slips must always occur in an extensive work of reference, and we have noted a considerable number here, though not enough, by any means, to fix a stigma of incorrectness upon the whole narrative. We mention some of them partly because they are typical and partly that they may be placed upon the list of corrigenda. P. 168: The impression is conveyed that Decius decisively repelled the Goths. On the contrary, he was slain in the battle of Forum Treborii, where the Goths overwhelmed his legions. P. 182: Pope Leo the Great had not been concerned in meeting any Vandal invasion before 449. P. 183: The leader of the Franks to whom Pope Gregory III. appealed against the Lombards was Charles Martel, not Pepin the Short. P. 190: Clovis's victory over the Alamanni (Zülpich) was fought near Strassburg, not Cologne. P. 217: Roger Guiscard, rather than Robert, should be credited with achievements in Sicily against the Saracens. P. 245: Besides some doubtful statements regarding the early condition of Florence, the minting of the florin is ascribed to the eleventh century instead of to 1252. P. 274: 1166 is not the date of Strongbow's first victories in Ireland. P. 279: The essence of the communes (Cambrai, Beauvais, Noyon, etc.) is missed in the sentence, "Former serfs who had been hereditary owners of portions of land had, in like manner, organized communes or parishes." P. 289: It is implied wrongly that in 1158 Milan yielded to Barbarossa without a struggle. P. 296: The Cathedral of Florence was not a Medicean work. P. 330: There is no good evidence to show that the Emperor Henry VII. was poisoned in 1313, although the assertion is often repeated on weak authority. P. 334: The battle of Näfels was fought in canton Glarus, not Schwyz. P. 424: The notice of St. Bartholomew hardly represents the best recent investigations. P. 523: Admiral Jarvis was not "victor over the French" in the battle of Cape St. Vincent. P. 720: The first Canadian printing-press was established in 1759, not 1764.

Despite these strictures, we must term Mr. Sanderson's book a useful, and in the main a very correct, one.

Under the African Sun: A Description of Native Races in Uganda, Sporting Adventures, and Other Experiences. By W. J. Ansorge. With 134 illustrations from photographs by the author, and two colored plates. Longmans, Green & Co. 1899. 8vo, pp. xiv, 355.

Uganda is the most interesting of tropical African countries. Its unique position makes it the true heart of the continent. Situated at the sources of the Nile, exactly half way between the Cape and the Mediterranean and the proposed meeting-point of the Nile and Bechuana railways, it is in close touch with the Indian Ocean by a railway nearly completed. Before another decade closes, it may be in direct communication with the Atlantic by a railway bridging the two or three hundred miles to the navigable waters of the Congo. Though apparently possessed of no mineral wealth, its soil is extraordinarily fertile—cotton and sugar growing wild—and it has an equable climate in which neither the heat nor the cold is excessive. The inhabitants, more than any other pure negroes, resemble the Japanese in their intelligence and their feudal form of government, while their eagerness to learn is shown by their nascent literature and native press. Their strength of character and self-reliance are attested by their history since Stanley's memorable visit in 1875; and though wars, religious persecutions, and rebellions have devastated the land and reduced its population, yet now it is confidently hoped that an era of peace and prosperity has dawned, and that there is an approaching near fulfilment of the prophecy that Uganda will become a second India.

The author of this latest contribution to the literature of the country, as Government medical officer during the last four years, was stationed in different parts of the Protectorate, thereby gaining an exceptional knowledge of the country and the people. His book is not a connected narrative, but a series of detached sketches and descriptions of incidents and personal experiences with men and beasts. It seems almost as if Dr. Ansorge had first arranged his pictures according to subjects, and then in writing followed their suggestions. There is an advantage in this method in that each picture becomes individual and significant, and the impression of much which is described in the text is heightened. Beginning with Zanzibar and the caravan road to the lake, our author tells something of each district through which he passed or in which he was stationed, and of the different tribes with which he had dealings, closing with stories of his hunting adventures with big game, and brief accounts of some of the smaller mammals, reptiles, and insects. His most enjoyable station, if not the most interesting, was at Fovira on the Nile, where, amid lovely scenery, surrounded by timid and peaceable natives, he led an almost idyllic life. Far different were his experiences at another post at the outbreak of the Sudanese mutiny. Fortunately his men remained loyal, not, however, without making some alarming demonstrations. He commends the Sudanese for their soldierly qualities of obedience and courage, and for their excellent service up to this time in guarding the frontiers of the Protectorate. Of their intelligence he gives this illustration:

"The men have to be their own tailors, and it is astonishing what neat white uniforms they can produce. The thread they obtain by unravelling a long, narrow strip of 'americani' cotton-cloth, or, more economically, by spinning it for themselves out of cotton from the nearest cotton plant."

He tells little of the deplorable, because preventable, mutiny beyond his personal experiences, but he hints at one of the causes, insufficient pay, in the remark that its outcome is "that a more liberal allowance has been granted to meet Government expenditure, and that the British nation has a firmer hold than ever of the Uganda Protectorate."

Dr. Ansorge is an interested and careful observer, and scattered through his books are numerous descriptions, illustrated frequently by well-chosen pictures, of characteristic native types, customs, and dwellings. These differ sometimes in an extraordinary and inexplicable way: for instance, the traveller passes immediately from the absolutely nude savages in Kavirondo into Usoga, "where not even the youngest walk about uncovered." The children show at a very early age an intelligence and capacity which seem of great promise for the ultimate elevation of the race. On the northwest shore of Lake Albert, among the Lurs, a magnificent black bull, becoming excited, put a whole village, including Dr. Ansorge's followers, to flight, and was on the point of charging him:

"Fortunately some one had hurriedly sent for the bull's keeper, a six-year-old naked little urchin. He came on the scene, and before the bull was aware—switch!—gave the brute a whack across the flank with a long lithe reed wand. The effect was magical. The bull became most humble, . . . and it fairly galloped off, amid the jeers and laughter of the hundreds who, a few minutes before, had fled helter-skelter in every direction."

The author's hunting was done mainly to provide food, or, as in the case of the lions and hippopotami, for the protection of the people. On the Nile and on the western shore of Lake Albert, the latter were so numerous and destructive to the corn and sweet-potato crops that there was a scarcity of food. "In such a struggle for existence," he says, "the hippo is locally exterminated, or the villagers must migrate to a region not favored by these animals." He is an enthusiastic student of natural history, and in the description of his various collections by different authorities inserted at the end of his book, it appears that of the 216 species of birds, some are new to science, and of some only one or two other specimens are known, and of butterflies, moths, and beetles he has "succeeded in adding more than fifty new species to science." The illustrations, which are reproductions of his own photographs, are exceptionally good, and add much to the interest and value of the work. It is, we regret to say, however, without either map or index.

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BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Baird, S. W. Graded Work and Arithmetic. Fifth Book. American Book Co.
Barr, R. The Strong Arm. Frederick A. Stokes Co.
Bayer, C. J. Studies of Life and its Variations. J. S. Ogilvie Publishing Co. $1.25.
Beale, S. J. San Juan. F. Tennyson Neely.
Becke, L. Ridan the Devil, and Other Stories. London: T. Fisher Unwin; Philadelphia: Lippincott. $1.50.
Bosanquet, B. The Philosophical Theory of the State. *Macmillan.*
Brandes, G. Henrik Ibsen, Björnstjerne Björnson: Critical Studies. Macmillan. $2.50.
Brown, Anna R. A Cosmopolitan Comedy. D. Appleton & Co. $1.
Bruce, M. Alaska: Its History and Resources, Gold Fields, Routes, and Survey. 2d ed. G. P. Putnam's Sons. $2.50.
Byron, Lord. Childe Harold's Pilgrimage. Macmillan Co. 25c.
Capes, B. At a Winter's Fire. Doubleday & McClure Co. $1.25.
Chamisso, Adelbert von. The Wonderful History of Peter Schlemihl. Boston: Ginn & Co. 35c.
Coleridge, E. H. The Works of Lord Byron. Poetry. Vol. II. London: Murray; New York: Scribners. $2.
Cornwallis, K. The Conquest of Mexico and Peru. New ed. New York: Wall Street Daily Investigator.
Cornwallis, K. The War for the Union. New York: Wall Street Daily Investigator.
Cragin, Belle S. Our Insect Friends and Foes. G. P. Putnam's Sons. $1.75.
Crowell, J. E. The Young Volunteer: A Record of the Experiences of a Private Soldier. F. Tennyson Neely.
Curtis, D. A. Queer Luck. Poker Stories from the New York Sun. Brentano's. $1.00.
Ewart, K. Dorothea. Cosimo de' Medici. Macmillan.
FitzGerald, E. Rubáiyát of Omar Khayyám. Vest Pocket Edition. Portland, Me.: Thomas B. Mosher. 25c.
Guerber, H. S. The Story of the Great Republic. American Book Co. 65c.
Hanus, Prof. P. H. Educational Aims and Educational Values. Macmillan Co. $1.
Harben, W. N. The Carruthers Affair. F. Tennyson Neely.
Harrison, Mrs. Burton. The Carcellini Emerald, and Other Tales. Chicago: Herbert S. Stone & Co. $1.50.
Hart, Prof. A. B. Source Book of American History. Macmillan Co. 60c.
Heilprin, Prof. A. Alaska and the Klondike. D. Appleton & Co. $1.75.
Herrings, J. Kuba und der Krieg. New York: Chas. Widermann.
Hitchcock, Mary E. Two Women in the Klondike. Putnams. $3.
Hollopeter, Dr. W. C. Hay-Fever and its Successful Treatment. 2d ed. Philadelphia: P. Blakiston's Son & Co. $1.
Howe, R. H., jr. On the Birds' Highway. Boston: Small Maynard & Co. $2.
Jaurès, J. Action Socialiste. Première Série: Le Socialisme et l' Enseignement; Le Socialisme et les Peuples. Paris: Georges Bellais.
Keane, Prof. A. H. Man, Past and Present. Cambridge: University Press; New York: Macmillan. $3.
Kipling, R. From Sea to Sea. 2 vols. Doubleday & McClure Co. $2.
Kipling, R. Departmental Ditties, and Ballads and Barrack-Room Ballads. Doubleday & McClure Co. $1.50.
Kruell, G. Portfolio of National Portraits. New York: R. H. Russell. $100.
Lewes, G. H. The Life of Robespierre. New ed. London: Chapman & Hall; New York: Scribners. $1.50.
Lummis, C. F. The Land of Sunshine: The Magazine of California and the West. Vol. IX. Los Angeles, Cal.
Macaulay, T. B. Warren Hastings. Cassell & Co. 10c.
MacDonagh, M. Irish Life and Character. 2d ed. Thomas Whitaker. $1.75.
Mackern, L., and Boys, M. Our Lady of the Green (A Book of Ladies' Golf). London: Lawrence & Bullen; Philadelphia: Lippincott. $1.25.
McCrady, E. History of South Carolina under the Royal Government. 1719-1776. *Macmillan.* $3.50.
McDougall, Rev. D. The Conversion of the Maories. Philadelphia: Presbyterian Board of Publication. $1.25.
Miller, Olive T. The First Book of Birds. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.
Milton's Comus, Lycidas, etc. Macmillan Co. 25c.
Minckwitz, R. A. The Twelfth Book of Homer's Odyssey. Boston: Ginn & Co. 40c.
Molière's Le Misanthrope. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co. 30c.
More, Paul E. The Prometheus Bound of Æschylus. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.
Munroe, K. Shine Terrill: A Sea Island Ranger. Boston: Lothrop Publishing Co. $1.25.
Newsholme, Arthur. The Elements of Vital Statistics. 3d ed. London: Sonnenschein; New York: Macmillan. $3.
Pickard, Florie W. The Ides of March. F. Tennyson Neely.
Rabusson, Henry. Les Chimères de Marc le Praistre. Paris: Lévy.
Rook, Clarence. The Hooligan Nights. Henry Holt & Co. $1.25.
Scott, Sir W. Woodstock, 2 vols. The Betrothed. The Talisman. [Temple Classics.] London: Dent; New York: Scribners. Each 80c.
Scott, Sir Walter. Kenilworth. American Book Co. 50c.
Scott, Sir Walter. The Lady of the Lake. Cassell & Co. 10c.
Shakspere, W. Works. Eversley Edition. Vol. V. Macmillan. $1.50.
Sidney, Margaret. The Stories Polly Pepper Told. Boston: Lothrop Publishing Co. $1.50.
Stephens, W. W. Higher Life for Working People. Longmans, Green & Co.
Stern, S. M. Johann Heinrich Jung's, genannt Stilling, Lebensgeschichte. Henry Holt & Co. $1.20.
Study of History in the Schools. Macmillan. 50c.
The Century Magazine. Nov., 1898—April, 1899. Century Co.
The Foreign Policy of the United States: Political and Commercial. Philadelphia: American Academy of Political and Social Science.
The Moral Discourses of Epictetus. Translated by Elizabeth Carter. 2 vols. [Temple Classics.] London: Dent; New York: Macmillan. $1.
Vivekânanda. Vedânta. New ed. Baker & Taylor Co.
Ward, Prof. J. Naturalism and Agnosticism. 2 vols. Macmillan.
Wentworth, G. A. Plane Geometry. Revised ed. Boston: Ginn & Co.
What Women Can Earn. Frederick A. Stokes Co.
Wherry, Albinia. Greek Sculpture, with Story and Song. London: Dent; New York: Scribners. $2.50.
Wirth, A. Geschichte Sibiriens und der Mandschurei. Bonn a. Rh.: Carl Georgi.
Worthington, Elizabeth S. How to Cook Husbands. Dodge Publishing Co. $1.25.

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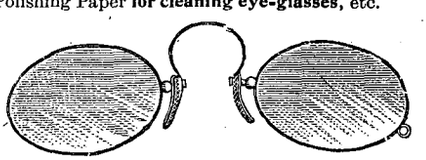

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